

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

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Association Notes and Editorial Comment

SCHOOLING—A MYTHICAL CONTINUUM

MANY YEARS AGO the principle was established that normal maturation is not a saltatory process: each of us who reached adulthood did not do so by leaps and bounds. Essentially, the early years of our lives were not marked by surges and plateaus, or by ravines into which we fell and out of which we had to climb. Yet, if we accept the thesis that education basically *is* life and not preparation *for* life and therefore should pace the unfolding powers of the individual, we look in vain for a smooth educational gradient as the rising generation bumps along from kindergarten through college. The surges and plateaus and ravines are there for all to see.

The schools are involved with three categories of people: the public, the profession, and the pupils. Since this column deals with those who fashion the educational fortunes of the rising generation, the pupils as agents will be dismissed at this point.

Certain obstacles which to a degree have blocked all efforts to smooth the road for the educational pilgrim have high visibility: confusion about the essential aims of education and ways and means of achieving the objectives which diverse elements among the citizenry, or their self-appointed spokesmen, are contending for; too little knowledge about child growth and development in both the public and the profession; the well-nigh insurmountable task—it seemingly defies human ingenuity—of devising a curriculum to fit such knowledge in an institution dedi-

cated to do something for all the children of all the people; and finally, the job of linking the various administrative units to such a curriculum if it were devised.

We shall say little here about the first of these obstacles. The babel of voices, symbolical of an educationally confused public, with charges and counter-charges has left the profession no choice but to proceed substantially as usual in its Sisyphian task with little hope of unified help, even limited consensus, from outside. This oppressing picture is lighted here and there, however, by seemingly successful efforts to establish better lines of communication between the profession and the public. Should these instances multiply sufficiently, better understanding all around would reduce the strange paradox of the public profession of deep faith in education, on the one hand, and continual assaults upon it, on the other.

The second obstacle to smooth progression, namely, limited knowledge of how we come to behave like human beings, is not so serious as it once was. Young parents are manifestly less ignorant than their fathers and mothers were about this process. As much can be said about teachers and those who supervise them. Knowledge of this character simply was not available twenty years ago, whereas every creditable teacher-training program, either specifically or generally, now presents it as a philosophy, if not as a discipline, to teacher neophytes.

This brings us to the curriculum. At present, as implied above, the ideal cur-

riculum has not yet been built. Every effort, strong or weak, at curriculum construction must be guided by the thought that this instrument, broadly conceived, has to provide the educational continuum which is the focal point of these paragraphs.

Now comes, as yet, the chief obstacle: the prevalent Procrustean administration of the curriculum. It is compressed within inelastic outmoded buildings; within a largely self-contained grade-structure which may read kg-8-4; kg-6-3-3; kg-6-4-2; and, since the advent of the junior-or community-college idea, 6-4-4, or any of the foregoing combinations plus two years—perhaps in a single community. Implicit in the hoped-for advantages of any of these structures is the original danger of automatic drop-out points. Specious hopes were expressed nearly fifty years ago when the first junior high school was organized that this new unit would bridge the chasm in the old 8-4 organization—an “isthmian” function, as Koos later labeled it. Hindsight reveals, however, that with each successive regrouping, hopefully executed to enhance “isthmian” possibilities, additional drop-out points were potentially created instead. In short, smooth transition was broken, not at one point as in the old 8-4 sequence, but at two or three. Although attendance laws still arbitrarily control physical drop-outs below certain ages, pupils must re-orient themselves to new, not necessarily continuing, experiences as they step across these imaginary boundary lines.

Within the pre-college structure there has been a growing movement to bridge these administrative gaps. Twenty years ago the Eight Year Study was a pioneer effort on a large scale to do so between the secondary school and college levels. This has proved to be the more resistant gap, however. Symbolical of one approach to a solution is the bilateral work of the Subcommittee on Articulation of High Schools and Colleges of the Commission on Research and Service. In setting up this committee the North Central Association ac-

knowledgeed the fact that both high schools and colleges, especially the public institutions, are obligated to work together if the needful continuum from kindergarten through college is to be realized. Each is essential to the other in the interests of effective education. A growing recognition of this fact is bringing both institutions together on the common ground of responsibility to the public which created and supports them. This rapprochement, still on the horizon and perhaps no bigger than a man's hand, may result in the mutual understandings which eventually will close this last gap in the educational journey.—HARLAN C. KOCH

TENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF STATE CHAIRMEN¹

*Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana
October 14-16, 1956*

THE TENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE of the State Chairmen met in Bloomington, Indiana, October 14-16, 1956. The roster of attendance follows.

State Chairmen:

Robert A. Crowell, Arizona; Ed McCuiston, Arkansas; Stephen A. Romine, Colorado; Lowell B. Fisher, Illinois; Carl G. F. Franzen, Indiana; L. A. Van Dyke, Iowa; Ralph Stinson, Kansas; Lester Anderson, Michigan; Elmer M. Weltzin, Minnesota; J. S. Maxwell and H. E. Mueller, Missouri; LeRoy Ortgieson, Nebraska; E. H. Fixley, New Mexico; Richard K. Klein, North Dakota; R. M. Garrison, Ohio; J. Standifer Keas, Oklahoma; W. Marvin Kemp, South Dakota; A. J. Gibson, West Virginia; R. F. Lewis, Wisconsin; L. R. Kilzer, Wyoming. Assistant State Chairmen: Clyde Slocum, Illinois; Christian Jung, Indiana; and Ray Kehoe, Michigan.

Members of the Administrative Committee:

Ralph C. Johnson, Chairman, Kansas City, Kansas; A. J. Gibson, Secretary, Charleston, West Virginia; George A. Beck, Duluth, Minnesota; Wayne C. Blough, East Cleveland, Ohio; J. Standifer Keas, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; and Floyd A. Miller, Lincoln, Nebraska.

¹ NOTE: Abstracted from the report by A. J. Gibson, Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools, who is secretary of the annual conference of State Chairmen, also.—EDITOR.

Guests:

Members of the Indiana State Committee: Edgar Smith, Indianapolis; Leroy L. Cook, Salem; Howard L. Crouse, Connersville; and William J. Holt, Rensselaer.

Otto Hughes, Chairman, Activities Committee, University High School, Bloomington, Indiana.

Sunday Evening, October 14

The State Chairmen of the Commission on Secondary Schools, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and their guests attended a reception in the Memorial Building on the campus of Indiana University at 7:30 P.M. given for the group by Carl G. F. Franzen, Christian Jung, and members of the Indiana State Committee. Refreshments were served and a general get-together was enjoyed by all.

Monday, October 15

(NOTE: This Conference is not an action group and its actions have no official status, except as recommendations to the Administrative Committee. Its purpose is primarily to provide an opportunity to exchange ideas on policies and problems of the State Committees and to give, through discussion, some continuity of direction to the program of the Commission as carried out in the 19 states.)

Chairman Ralph C. Johnson called the meeting to order at 9:00 A.M., and presented Carl G. F. Franzen, who had just returned from a two-year educational assignment to Thailand. He was greeted with a round of applause as everyone was glad to have Carl with us again.

J. S. Maxwell, retiring Chairman of the Missouri State Committee, introduced his successor, H. E. Mueller, University of Missouri, who was welcomed to the Association by Chairman Johnson. The State Chairmen expressed their regret at the loss of Mr. Maxwell, who is retiring as State Chairman of the Missouri State Committee because of being assigned to other duties at the University. They wished him the best of success in his new responsibilities. His tireless work and dependable judgment will be missed in the conferences of this group.

REPORTS FROM THE SECRETARY

A. Mr. Gibson gave a brief review of the development of the Administrative Committee. He stated that until the 1938 Annual Meeting of the North Central Association there had been no elected officials of the Commission on Secondary Schools, other than a president and secretary. At the 1938 Annual Meeting, a Committee of Nine was elected to guide the activities of this Commission for the year 1938-39. At the 1939 Annual Meeting, the name of The Committee of Nine was changed to The Committee of Seven. This committee functioned for the years 1939-1940 and 1940-1941, at which time a new constitution for the Association was adopted which again changed the name of this committee from that of The Committee of Seven to The Administrative Committee.

An attempt is being made to collect all of the minutes of this Committee and to have them bound in one volume. To date all of the minutes of the Administrative Committee have been located, three of the six meetings of The Committee of Seven, and a report of the Chairman on two meetings of The Committee of Nine.

Stenotype reports of the meetings of the Commission on Secondary Schools have been located for all meetings, starting with the year 1935 up to and including 1956, and have been bound in four volumes.

- B. UNIFORM PLAN FOR PAYMENT OF DUES BY MEMBER SCHOOLS, INCLUDING NEW SCHOOLS.—The State Chairmen recommended that an envelope addressed to R. Nelson Snider, treasurer of the North Central Association, and a voucher for the dues, be included with the Report Forms going out to each member school at the beginning of the school year. Also that all new schools be sent a statement for dues by the Treasurer, after they are admitted to membership in the Association.
- C. CERTIFICATES OF MEMBERSHIP.—The State Chairmen recommended that, when schools have been dropped or have withdrawn from membership in the Association, the State Chairman collect the Certificates of Membership from each of these schools and forward them to the Secretary of the Commission.

- D. REPORT FORMS.—The proposed changes in report forms were explained and after a general discussion, the following suggestions were proposed by the State Chairmen for the guidance of the Report Forms Committee:

- (1) Include a statement concerning the reporting of teachers returning from leaves of absence.
- (2) Further clarify Teaching Load (under item 9, page 2 of the 1956-57 Form A).

The status of school nurses was discussed and it was agreed that the school nurse should be reported as a member of the faculty only when she is assigned to the teaching of one or more regularly scheduled subjects.

REPORT ON MEMORANDUM SUBMITTED TO EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE—Stephen A. Romine

Mr. Romine reported that he had not had a meeting of his committee,¹ and was not ready to make a report at this time. This was followed by a general discussion of the questions raised in the memorandum. Some suggestions were made, but no action was taken on any of the recommendations.

COOPERATING COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH—L. A. Van Dyke

This Committee had been given two assignments by the Administrative Committee: (1) to rearrange the *Policies, Regulations and Criteria* so as to bring together items dealing with a specific regulation; and (2) assemble the materials that had been duplicated by several committees and use the findings of these studies in the above rearrangement.

The committee met in St. Louis and came to the conclusion that to rearrange the *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria* in the fashion indicated would further confuse the situation. It recommended that the foregoing assignments be combined. The State Chairmen approved this recommendation and referred the matter to the Administrative Committee for final action.

ACTIVITIES COMMITTEE—Otto Hughes

Mr. Hughes asked for suggestions for this committee for the coming year. The following were given. In addition to its present assignments, the committee was asked to study:

- (1) Problems in connection with recruitment of athletes.
- (2) Question of athletics in the junior high school in relation to the senior high school.

EXPANDING SERVICES OF STATE CHAIRMEN AND STATE COMMITTEES

The State Chairmen were asked to attach a statement to the financial and budget reports regarding their State Committee projects for the year. These reports will be revised to give a better picture of the expenditures of the state committees in the future.²

CONSIDERATION OF ADMITTING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS TO MEMBERSHIP

During a general discussion, it was brought out that the junior high schools would like to become members of the North Central Association; and if that opportunity is not provided, they will probably form an organization of their own. It was the opinion of the State Chairmen that this problem deserved careful study and the matter was referred to the Ad-

ministrative Committee for study and for any action they deemed advisable.

REVISION OF *Evaluative Criteria*—Floyd A. Miller

Mr. Miller made a brief report on the present status of the revision of the *Evaluative Criteria*, which most of the states use in the evaluation of schools applying for membership and also for re-evaluation of member schools. It was pointed out that, since the sales of the *Evaluative Criteria* are still increasing, the 1950 edition is still being reprinted and is available. The general form of the 1960 revision will remain fundamentally the same. Sections will be added especially to help the six-year high schools and junior high schools. The revision will reflect what is now considered the best practices in secondary education.

RELATIONSHIP OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION TO STATE COMMITTEES IN THE ACCREDITATION OF MEMBER SCHOOLS

After much discussion, it was the consensus of the State Chairmen that the areas of responsibilities between the state departments of education and the North Central Association State Committees seem to be clearly defined.

A school must be in the highest class of schools as officially listed by the properly constituted educational authorities of the state before the North Central Association can consider it for membership. This properly constituted authority may be the State Department of Education or the State University, depending on which classifies the schools of the state involved.

ANNUAL MEETING, APRIL 1-5, 1957

Chairman Johnson reported on the progress made to date in arranging the program for the Annual Meeting, and asked for topics for the buzz sessions. He stated that the program was nearly complete.

In answer to a query by the Executive Committee, the State Chairmen expressed themselves as not in favor of starting the Annual Meeting one day earlier in the week.

FILM STRIPS—Ralph C. Johnson

Mr. Johnson suggested that the Commission on Secondary Schools prepare, for public relation programs and for use in schools applying for membership in the Association, a series of 35 mm. film strips and slides to be assembled in packets for use in the 19 states. After discussion, the State Chairmen recommended to the Administrative Committee that this project be developed.

Monday Evening—October 15

After a picnic dinner at "Bradford Woods," owned by Indiana University, the Chairmen assembled in the large living room, around a big log fire and listened to Dr. George E. Davis, professor at Pur-

¹ NOTE: A special committee appointed to consider further an array of problems and suggestions presented to the Executive Committee last year.—EDITOR.

² NOTE: For background, see "New Formula for Distribution of Funds to State Committees," page 179 of THE QUARTERLY, October, 1956.—EDITOR.

due University, and an authority on James Whitcomb Riley, tell some stories about Riley's boyhood and later life. He also read several of Riley's compositions. Dr. Davis proved to be an expert, not only in story telling, but also in interpreting the prose and poetical writing of the "Hoosier Poet."

The group expressed its thanks to Carl G. F. Franzen, Christian Jung, and the Indiana State Committee for arranging such a delightful evening and especially for providing the opportunity to hear Dr. Davis.

Tuesday—October 16

Chairman Ralph Johnson thanked Carl G. F. Franzen, Christian Jung, and members of the Indiana State Committee, and all others who, in any way, were responsible for making the arrangements for the successful operation of this meeting.

CONTINUING PROGRAM OF THE ACTIVITIES COMMITTEE OF THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE FOLLOWING PROGRAM of proposed activities, submitted for consideration by Chairman Otto Hughes, of the Activities Committee, to the Commission on Secondary Schools was approved by that body, April 11, 1956. The committee has been doing very effective work since it was created seven years ago. It was commissioned to study the pressures which constantly are brought to bear upon secondary schools to administer all sorts of outside events, commercial stunts, contests, and the like; but not least have been the problems of athletics, especially those stemming from college recruitment policies and practices. Elsewhere in this number of *THE QUARTERLY* is published a summary of the committee's latest inquiry into athletics in the secondary schools of the Association. The reader will see below that the Commission on Secondary Schools will continue to give attention to this important extra-curricular area.

The approved program is as follows:

1. In order that the results of the findings of the current study of athletics may be implemented, a set of guiding principles for athletics be developed comparable to the statements formulated through the cooperation of the Activities Committee and the National Association of Music and the National Association of Speech.
2. That further solicitation be made by the Activities Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools for a closer cooperation between that committee and the Athletic Committee of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association.
3. That continued effort be made to provide means whereby closer cooperation may be initiated between the Activities Committee of the North Central Association and similar committees of the other Regional Accrediting Associations.
4. That the Activities Committee be authorized to keep in close touch with such groups as the National Federation of High School Athletic Associations, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the National Association of Health and Physical Education.
5. That membership on the Activities Committee be changed from time to time in order that a more widely distributed representation of states might be realized.
6. That the Activities Committee be authorized to continue to function as a Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools for the year 1956-57.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION MAKES LARGE AWARD TO THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

In its current *Announcement of Grants* the Carnegie Corporation of New York releases the following statement:

GRANT SUPPORTS WORKSHOPS ON HIGHER EDUCATION

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools received a grant of \$147,000 from Carnegie Corporation for workshops on higher education. The Association plans to bring together small groups of college and university staff members for summer training sessions on problems of institutional planning. This instruction will be supplemented by visits to several other colleges during the academic year.

"PUBLICATION OF PROJECT REPORT ASSURED"

"AT ITS NOVEMBER 17 MEETING the Committee on Institutions for Teacher Education voted to accept a contract with the Wm. C. Brown Publishers for publication of its eight-year report *IMPROVING*

TEACHER EDUCATION THROUGH INTER-COLLEGE COOPERATION. This marks another step toward the appearance of this important volume. The book is to be issued in the spring of 1957. It is hoped that it will be ready before the April 1-5 meetings of the Association in Chicago.

"This will be a volume of approximately 350 pages divided into eight chapters. The chapter titles and their respective authors are listed below:

- I. *The Cooperative Project in Teacher Education*, George E. Hill
- II. *The Faculty in Teacher Education*, George E. Hill
- III. *Improving General Education*, Ernest Mahan
- IV. *Improvement of Instruction*, John E. Jacobs
- V. *The Professional Education of Teachers*, V. A. Travis and Graham Pogue
- VI. *Student Personnel Services*, C. H. Allen
- VII. *Fifth Year and Graduate Programs*, Gordon Stone
- VIII. *Cooperation in Teacher Education: Summary and Forecast*, George E. Hill

"General editorial supervision of the volume has been provided by George E. Hill and Edward F. Potthoff.

"The volume draws heavily upon the work of the individual colleges, both in their on-campus studies and in the work of their representatives at the summer workshops. In fact, without the wholehearted cooperation of hundreds of persons on the various campuses, the book could not have been prepared. It will be sent without cost to all the participating colleges. Additional copies will be made available through purchase from the Wm. C. Brown Co.

"It is the Committee's conviction that this volume will be one of the important contributions to higher education and to teacher education. Its wide distribution and reading will add a major resource to the project."

—Subcommittee on Institutions for Teacher Education, *Teacher Education Bulletin*, IX, Number 3 (December, 1956), 2.

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The Scholar's Time: How It Is Best Used¹

THERE IS, of course, an obvious answer to this question. It is implied in what Sigrid Undset, the great Norwegian novelist, once replied to my complaint that a certain American writer dodged speaking engagements, "She is a writer. She wants to write as she should," with a vigor that made me wonder what she had heard of the deplorable scatterbrain who was at that moment trying to divert her. The scholar should be about his scholarship. We should all of us agree on that, if it were quite that simple—which, of course, as usual it is not.

You remember what Thackeray once said about not being able to understand why Pegasus alone of all the beasts of the field should expect to eat his grass without sweating for it. The American scholar, like the American poet, is in no danger of illusion about that. With a few exceptions, like economics professors infiltrating government bureaus in Washington, and physicists spotlighted by the lurid afterglow of Los Alamos, the American scholar must resign himself to being regarded by most of his fellow-citizens as something of a luxury, at best a harmless oddity, with occasional sparks of unexpected news interest when he comes up with a new pharmaceutical compound out of the moulds in which he appropriately grubs, or in a lull in the cold war calls attention to some surprising social habit among our remoter neighbors, or hazards a new guess about the family connections of our still remoter ancestors. The scholar devoted to the arts, says the English professor, can hardly hope for that much. Some years ago I

made what I thought was an eloquent plea to a distinguished company planning a conference on the education of women to include a section on the arts as a means of giving pattern to experience and expression to value. I made my plea with the greater urgency because I hoped that what would be more easily admitted for women's education in a society that regards the patronage of the arts as a feminine function might presently be allowed to spread to men's. My fellow committee-women were most generous and at the next meeting triumphantly called my attention to a section on the arts for *leisure-time* activity. Considering what a fair share of our fellow citizens think of us scholars, I sometimes think the surprising thing is not that they do not support universities better, but that they do as well as they do.

Of course, for the general public the university is not only the nursery of the arts and sciences, like the medieval church a shelter for the human types and activities that would find it hard to survive in the ruder world without, it is also a preserve for a fascinating and appealing but often trying period in human development. (I often think that the families of some of my young friends who rejoice at escaping from home must enjoy being escaped from, too.) And, finally, it is a playing field for Hollywood and General Motors and the Congress of the United States and the Chamber of Commerce and the Ladies' Aid, and a great many other things, indispensable to the functioning of the American way of life. It is, therefore, a very good place for the American scholar to carry on his never-won, never-quite-lost battle to make his countrymen

¹ One of two discussions of this topic at the general program meeting of the Commission on Colleges and Universities in Chicago, April 12, 1956.

understand what the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake is all about, to give them some experience of its high, dry climate, some foretaste of its hard-won pleasures.

But it is precisely because the university is the place in which to reach those of our countrymen best qualified to appreciate scholarship at an impressionable age that it is indispensable that the scholar should be a real scholar without apology or compromise. The other day I heard someone speak of the desirability of making religion respectable in the university. Now I yield to no one in my desire to see religion bring its grace to the university, but anyone who knows anything of the long history of religion knows that some of its least glorious chapters are those in which religion has become thoroughly respectable. So with scholarship. The scholar is not another good fellow, with the same tastes and interests as everybody else. And it is a waste of time for him to pretend he is. He is a man with a special interest, a special dedication, a special calling and it is not himself. It is his field, his specialty, and what with his gifts (which are gifts not possessions), and his training (which he owes to a lot of people who have never enjoyed anything like his privileges), he can contribute to that field. For himself he should walk humbly as befits a sensitive man with some awareness of the larger world about him, but of his calling he should be confident with that confidence that will give him the patience and the flexibility to do the job in this world that only he can do.

That is not easy. We should face more frankly than we do the fact that we are asking a good deal of our scholar in the university. He must be good in his field; as the students say, he must know his stuff. And that is a lot. He must know not only that segment in which he specializes, but he must have some idea of the larger context. And he must know what is going on. A great many fields are changing constantly. You scientists do not need an English teacher to tell you that. And even

in fields where one would have thought the evidence was in, there is constant process of reassessment, of reinterpretation going on, that at once brings new riches to our heritage, say in Shakespeare's plays, and a new dimension in the availability of that heritage to the needs and the possibilities of our time. "His lectures are so dry you can hear his notes crackle," a student complained to a friend of mine of what he mistakenly thought was the teaching of a scholar. It was not. It was the mechanical performance of a man who had not kept up as a scholar should.

There is in the mythology of the campus one myth that is extraordinarily tenacious, and that is the supposed dichotomy between teaching and scholarship. True, there are some elementary teachers whose warmth and patience with the fumbling beginner do give a sense of human approachableness in the large university world that has its place, though I am not sure that even here the effect is what a university should aim for. And such a teacher often gives to contacts with his students and an interest in their affairs the time and energy that another man gives to his subject. A certain number of such teachers, especially when they are young, do render a valuable service, and I should be the last to underestimate it. But I do not think they in the long run give anything comparable even in the field of teaching to the influence of the scholar who appreciates the opportunities of his elementary teaching and gives his mind to that very difficult and rewarding art. For he not only gives his students interest and sympathy, but he opens up vistas that the man who has not penetrated his subject can only guess at. Indeed, in the field of literature at least it takes a good deal of scholarly work to compass that precisely detailed knowledge of the life of a past period, say, that will conjure up the so-called human aspects that appeal so much to an elementary class. I have sometimes said, only half jestingly, that it takes more precise detail to do this for an elementary course in

Shakespeare than to lay out the larger patterns for a graduate course, though not of course as much as it would take to write an historical novel. Even the elementary student knows whether his professor speaks out of a plentitude or not. I remember that as a high school student I noticed that one of my teachers often disagreed with the notes in our textbook. The daring of that impressed me, and for the first time it occurred to me that human beings wrote those textbooks, and I might some day try my hand, too.

There is no question that scholarship does take time that might be spent on student exercises or talking with students in one's office, but I think that it is worth it even for the student. And that goes for that other campus bogeyman, this time of the faculty club, publication. We all know what a certain level of instructor at a certain stage believes on that subject. He believes that publication is an administrative superstition, that if anything is published no matter what it is nor where, it counts, and that the publisher is put ahead thereby of the most brilliant sparkler at academic dinners, the most authoritative judge at cocktail parties. He has apparently never heard of that ancient wish, "Oh, that my enemy had written a book!" It is true that deans and senior professors who can recall their youthful and not so youthful agonies are usually more charitable to that first effort than the young man who scorns to consider writing anything less than that masterpiece he is going to write twenty years from now, but they are hardly so impressed by the imprint of an academic press for which they often enough write themselves not to read critically what is presented to them.

Publication should be viewed like a great many other things not so much as a test as a symptom. I tell my writing students that I shall probably never require them to rewrite anything, but that I shall certainly not waste any time thinking of their literary future until they do. The young scholar should be encouraged to

plunge in. "It won't be much good," said a very wise man with whom I had been discussing my own first book, "but go ahead and publish it. The next will be better." When I had recovered from my disappointment at the obviously modest impression my conversation had made on the great man, I took his advice. And I learned from the process.

Especially, I learned the great gulf that must be crossed between the triumphantly completed first draft and the one that in final desperation is sent to the printer. Most of us who trade in words are "kittle cattle," blowing hot and cold on our projects, putting off the final decision as long as possible, doing everything but the one thing we know we should do—quit worrying and get down to it. In a by no means dull life I have found the most unfailing source of inspiration in that grimdest of literary necessities, the deadline. So I am inclined to advise my young friends to let the book wait, and begin with an article or two. It will get them into circulation, but most important of all, it will get them moving.

As for the older man, he should always have something in hand, something he is going to get to as soon as he has a moment. I think of the recipe of a friend of mine who has written a number of very substantial and very original books, "It's simple really. Just read everything that has been written on the subject, and then ask yourself what has been left out." Something is wrong with a scholar who, however well adjusted, never finds a gap to be filled.

Our predecessors in the institutionalized life of the mind, the monks of the middle ages, devoted a good deal of thought to that disease of the spirit which they called *acedia*, a combination of laziness and discouragement in which the becalmed spirit finds it all but impossible to get off dead center. *Acedia* did not vanish with the middle ages, nor is it peculiar to monasticism. Teaching and publication both help to keep the self-devouring spirit aware of the world outside of itself, and moving

beyond its own anxious limits. It is the totality of the personality, the healthy, active, creative personality that we want, and to that we should address ourselves.

I do not think that I need to stress with this audience the necessity of freedom in all this. Nobody can make a man want to do something he does not want to do. That is why it is so important to make sure that a man is a scholar in his very nature before we get him started in a university. If he is going to do research only because the administration demands it, he should be somewhere else—there are plenty of other places for him to be anyway. But if he is a potential scholar, there is a good deal we can do to help him. If we have a real scholarly community where everybody is doing something, that is the best thing we can give him. But it is here precisely that we make another demand on the scholar's time. If the university is to be a community of scholars, and that is what it must be if it is to be a university, then the scholar must be prepared to give some time and thought to the common business. He must be prepared to give time to department business, to faculty business, from the agenda of the faculty meeting to the committees that fill the University Club tables every noon. Of course, he'll grumble. (It will make him feel important.) But there is no way out of it if the university is to be run by its faculty. Indeed, a certain number of scholars will have to give up their own work to do the administrative work. It is a pity, but the gain to every man in the institution as well as to the institution itself more than justifies it.

And something like this extends to the community beyond the individual campus. Precisely because the scholar is fortunate enough to be in a great university with a fine respect for scholarship and an understanding of its nature, he owes it to the academic community to take his part in the work of the learned societies, and the professional organizations—not forgetting the A.A.U.P.—and the various public and private scholarship boards. He

owes it to his own guild to do everything he can to strengthen the position of scholars less happily placed than he, and to insure the future of the work to which he has given his life. And I think he owes a duty as a citizen to make his distinctive contribution to the common business of the life of our country and our time. Where his specialty enables him to offer expert advice, he should be ready to give it when asked, and if not asked, he should be ready to offer it if a better man is not available. "Speaking up in meeting" should not be confined to the academic halls.

Of course, there are all the fine points of time and place and company to be considered, but I do not see why the scholar should be exempt from the universal obligation not to let common folly proceed unchecked if one can help it. "Where were you?" is a fair question to ask of any of the Monday morning quarterbacks in whom history abounds. And if the voice of the expert is resented, so much the more reason why it should be raised. That means, of course, the risk of the controversial, so much dreaded in so many quarters today. But what is a university for if not to explore the issues on which men divide? And how is a democracy going to conduct its business of arriving at a decision of the conflict of many interests if all those interests are not heard? And what interest has more right than that of the disinterested pursuit of the Truth?

Of course, the scholar should speak as a scholar, of what he knows and what by explicable logical process he concludes therefrom. There are plenty of other people to talk beyond their knowledge and short-cut the process of conclusion. And he should bring the right tone of voice. There is no need of anybody more to swell the uproar of passion and prejudice. And he should speak modestly as one man in his field, not wrapping himself in any pretensions to the prestige of the university or profession. What he says and how he says it will present his credentials to any one intelligent and sober enough to think

of them. Never mind if he is taunted with being removed from the practical world. At least he has no axe to grind. And there are never too many people thinking of the day after tomorrow.

But, you will be saying, these are the counsels of perfection. How is one man to have time for all this, to say nothing of the obligations of home and family? I was telling one of my young colleagues the other day that there is no profit in cutting down on sleep, and he said, "I wish you would tell my young son that." Of course, the scholar like everybody else must make his choices, very much as one not unfriendly observer saw the poet Coleridge, self-absorbedly talking his way down a path, listing first to one side and then to the other. If he is sensitive to all his obligations, the scholar will never be very well satisfied with the allocation of his time. The new leisure that we hear so much about these days is hardly for him, or anybody else with the total commitment of the self-motivated and self-directed.

But certain practical things can be done for him. And now you who are administrators know perfectly well what I am going to say next. Two things can be done to help on this problem of time. One is the matter of salary. I do not hold much with that view that the academic profession would command more respect if salaries were higher. I think that is probably true, though it is a sad commentary on the values of all of us if it is. But I do not think that academic salaries can ever be as high as the salaries of business executives or entertainers, for instance. As I suggested above, we shall probably always have to rely more on our own self-respect than the respect others give us. But I think salaries should be high enough to enable the scholar to devote his time to scholarship. A little physical labor is for a good many men a welcome break from the library or the laboratory, but painting the inside of one's house goes far beyond that, and that is only one sample of the consequences of the scholar's inability to keep up with a rising labor market.

Likewise, a good many men teach in the summer session when they might better give the summer to research. Travel is another opportunity that more money might give, perhaps to go to one of the great research libraries of the country, where a man can exchange ideas with his fellow specialists. And a modicum of secretarial help would extend the scholar's arm. Not every professor is far-sighted enough to marry an accomplished typist. Secretarial help means not only relief from copying but the means of maintaining fruitful contacts with one's fellow workers and one's students when they have left the university, a continuation of the university service not always appreciated at its due value. In other words, I plead for higher salaries not for raising one's standard of living, however proper an American enterprise that may be, but for giving the scholar more time to do what we all want him to do—his own work.

And the second is the direct provision of more free time for research. A man can get a good deal done in snippets of time, if he is not too tired. But there are some things that take unbroken periods of leisure, for example, the pulling together of research carried on over an extended period of time. The provision of a half year now and then makes all the difference in a man's productiveness. Indeed, you may mark many a scholar's leaves by the publication dates of his books. This is most important, because it gives a man a chance to concentrate and to take a psychological if not a physical leave of his familiar routines, with resultant profit to everybody who comes in contact with him on his return.

But relief on teaching load is also very important. Most university lectures have, like all Gaul, three parts. Three courses are enough for anybody. And every hour that can be cut off the teaching load improves the remainder. But hours are not the only way in which time is con-

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The Scholar's Time: How It Is Best Used¹

SOMETHING THAT IS both flattering and frightening, good or possibly bad, is happening to American colleges and universities today. I am sure that you have observed it and share my concern that its opportunities may be accepted and its dangers avoided. Because it is relatively new it sometimes appears to be strange and fearsome—perhaps even evil. But if we look carefully at this new development we begin to see that it may be basically good. But we also see that it is fraught with danger and calls for constant vigilance.

I am speaking of the new esteem in which universities and university people are held today. The people of America are taking a new look at the campus and they seem to like what they see. They have a new appreciation of the good to be found there and they are making demands which seem strange to those of us whose beginnings were in years of indifference, or possibly even of scorn. Often their hopes are extravagant or distorted, but there is no escaping the fact that people from all walks of life are asking for help from the colleges and universities.

Only a few years ago most of us thought that we were neglected and unappreciated—that we had resources of great worth which were never properly understood and used to full advantage. Now, within a brief span of years, we find the situation radically changed. Instead of being worried about the lack of public desire for the full services of scholars, we are concerned

about the best use of their limited time and energies. We now find ourselves beset by requests which, particularly in the tax-supported institutions, take the form of demands for service—and these demands are not easily put off.

What brought on this remarkable change in attitude toward the colleges and universities? Your guess is as good as mine, but I should like to suggest just a few of the many successful accomplishments which, put together, convinced large and important segments of our population that treasures of real value are to be found on the campus.

Perhaps most dramatic of all was the demonstration that in total war, the toughest and most realistic of all situations, scholars from the campus had a vital contribution to make. Consider for just a moment the popular image of a physicist in 1941 with his image today. Or the fact that, even as late as 1944, a cyclotron was generally regarded as a relatively unimportant and probably wasteful gadget built for the personal amusement of the denizens of quiet and secluded campus laboratories. Through a series of intensely dramatic events which touched the lives of every man, woman, and child, the university professor and the university research worker suddenly became national heroes—saviors and men of miracles—frequently to their own embarrassment and dismay.

There has been a similar development in the healing arts, perhaps not quite so dramatic but again, as in the case of total war, reaching every man, woman, and child through accomplishments which have been clear and understandable in situations which are charged with deep

¹ Delivered at the program meeting of the Commission on Colleges and Universities, Chicago, April 12, 1956, as the latter of two discussions of this topic. The former, by Miss White immediately precedes Mr. Heimberger's address in these pages.

personal feeling. Once more the scholar has proved his worth. If anything, too much faith has been placed in his ability to work wonders, to solve all problems which beset mankind.

The new look to the campus has also been affected by the vast increase in developmental research programs undertaken by private industry. Hard-headed business men, moved by the drive to stay ahead of competitors, have turned to the colleges and universities for direct assistance. Again, in the tough world of dollars and cents, the campus has assumed new meaning and importance.

It is my personal belief that many of the demands which are now being put upon us can be traced back to the land-grant college system and the agricultural extension service. Over a period of many years one important segment of our population has been learning through day-to-day experience that there is much to be gained from the outreach of the colleges and universities. Slowly but surely, other interest groups have caught on and we are now faced with demands made by many who formerly were disinterested or even hostile. Appeals for help are coming from the professions, from business, from industry, and from labor.

This sudden popularity is very flattering but it is also a reason for deep concern. I hardly need to remind this group that the resources of colleges and universities are decidedly limited. But I do wish to emphasize the fact that the most precious resource of all is the one that is most limited in supply. I am speaking, of course, of the scholars and teachers who make the college or university and whose energies must always be put to the best and most productive use. Buildings may be built and equipment bought whenever the public demand is matched by a willingness to pay. But scholars are not that easy to come by. It is essential that, in the management of college and university affairs, they should give their time and energy to those endeavors which, in the long run, make maximum use of their

unique abilities and which extend their special gifts to the farthest possible reach.

The easy answer, one which is often heard from some who have matured in less hectic days, is to reject all this folderol as undesirable, perhaps even as unclean and unworthy of the campus. But, granted that many of the demands now being put upon us are distracting, wasteful, and debilitating, I think that we had better look at them separately and carefully before rejecting the lot as worthless and beneath the dignity of the true college or university.

Before we do this, it is wise to consider for a moment a few broad principles which should guide the university or college as it searches for the best ways in which to make the most of its resources. In my opinion, the first principle is that every effort should be made to use the rare talent of scholarship and teaching in such a way that its influence will be extended and continued far beyond the direct personal service of the scholar. The great contribution of the scholar and teacher does not lie in his own finding of a new fact or in his own solution to an immediate problem. It may be found in his development of others capable of finding facts and reaching solutions with and after him. Once made, that contribution knows no end. It extends outward through others and leads to the future.

Please do not misunderstand me. The scholar's own program of personal research is of inestimable value. It adds to the store of what is known and it greatly enriches his teaching. But it finds its maximum value only when, through it, the scholar passes on to others his love of discovery and his ways of finding new truth. We must always be vigilant lest we so burden the scholar with demands for immediate and practical answers that he cannot make his greater contribution through the guidance and instruction of those who may carry on and multiply his talents.

Let me give you a true example of what I am talking about. There is in my state

today a great need for the correction of speech and hearing defects among pre-school children. There are many who, knowing this need, are eager to do everything possible to see that it is met. They come to us with offers to establish clinics for direct service to the children who might profit greatly through the assistance of competent specialists. But the number of persons who are scientifically trained in this relatively new field is distinctly limited. What should we do? Should we use the time of highly trained members of our faculty for direct and immediate service? Or should we use it largely in experimental clinics which may not reach so many children but which will surely add to the store of knowledge in the field and increase the number of specialists able to give the services which are so badly needed? This is not an easy decision to make, but it must be made if the scholar's time is to be used to the best possible advantage in the long run.

What I am saying is that, in all cases, we must be careful to look at the long-range effects of services we are asked to perform. The question in our minds must always be directed to the future. What will be the consequences if, in order to supply direct and immediate services, we rob the future of the inspired and thoroughly educated young men and women who will be so greatly needed and who can extend and expand the influence of the scholar of today? Simply put, the teaching function should never be crowded out, even by the most insistent and compelling demands for immediate service functions.

A second broad principle to which I think we must give heed is that of maintaining balance in what we do. So many of the demands put upon us stem from the practical problems of the workaday world. "Help us find ways of producing better pigs." "Show us how to set up a proper accounting system." "Test our vitreous tile and tell us how to make it better and at lower cost." "Teach us how to make better fillings for teeth." I have no objection to any of these efforts to improve my

lot and that of others as well. But a college or university has other responsibilities and they too must be met. If we yield to the temptation to center our attention wholly upon that which is popular and immediately practical, then we have failed to meet our total responsibility. We have lost our sense of balance, our conviction that scholarship in other fields, particularly the humanities, is of at least equal importance.

A final principle upon which I think we must stand is that of university autonomy and self-determination. In these days it seems that everybody wants to get into the act. Interest groups of all kinds wish to be associated with a college or university. Frequently they come with attractive offers of financial aid. They have special needs and they want help from our scholars. Sometimes, though, they insist that we do it their way. And, parenthetically, this goes for some of the large foundations as well as for the retail hardware dealers' association. Goodness knows that we need all of the money that we can get and we are flattered by these offers of financial assistance. But if we have any hope of seeing to it that our scholars' time is used to best advantage, we must not allow ourselves to be bought out of control. In meeting his personal responsibility the individual scholar must also be cautious lest he be lured away from his greatest and most lasting contribution by the attraction of an added fee or stipend.

Not too often—but still often enough to cause me to worry—I have seen a promising young man in serious danger of being diverted from his maximum development as a productive scholar by the attraction of a research or service proposal planned and directed from outside and with no consideration for the program of his department, college, or university. No doubt many of you have had this same experience. The college or university must always retain a substantial measure of control. If it does not it sells its soul to the highest bidder or becomes the instrument of the most vocal, most de-

manding, or the richest special interest groups.

Now let's go back and take a look at a few of the things we are being asked to do today, using only two examples from the many which might easily be chosen. These two, contract research and extended or continuing education, may be found on almost any campus and are of pressing concern today.

First of all, research. My assignment today is to talk about the pressures for service which come from outside the university itself. For this reason I shall make only passing reference to the programs of research which are carried forward by individuals or groups of scholars as a part of the never-ending search for new knowledge and wisdom which is the responsibility of every college or university. Instead, my remarks will be directed toward contract or sponsored research.

While experiment stations, research bureaus, and other devices for doing contract research have long been on the campus scene, the demand for their services had never been of great importance until the world began its mad rush toward war in the late thirties. Then, with mounting speed, governmental agencies began to draw upon the scholarly talents of the colleges and universities. Almost overnight contract research became big business. In many instances separate but completely controlled corporations were established to meet these new demands and, in some cases, opportunities. I say opportunities because, quite frequently, institutions which had been hard put to pay salaries attractive enough to hold scholars or to find money enough for essential equipment and supplies suddenly found a mine of gold. It was the government contract and on a good many campuses which had been dull and lifeless, research began to boom.

Then, with the increasing acceptance of research as a normal part of the productive effort of private business, industrial contracts came along to make the boom an even larger and more permanent one.

Contract research is on the campus and it seems to be here to stay. Some say that, as in semi-pro football, we have created a monster. Recognizing all of the very real dangers, I do not share their pessimism—about contract research, that is, not football.

In many respects engaging in contract research on a large scale is like walking a tightrope. With the exercise of care and balance it may lead across a difficult passage to a desired goal, but peril lies along the way. I need not go into great detail about the dangers involved. You are familiar, I am sure, with the possibility that a program of contract research may be regarded, in itself, as the fulfillment of a university's duty to add to the store of what is known. You are fully aware that its enticements may lure the scholar, step by step, away from the personal program which would lead to his full development and greatest usefulness. You are also aware that too much emphasis upon contract research may result in the neglect of those many and vastly important areas in which contracts are rarely, if ever, heard of.

But, until the millennium comes, there are advantages. With a clear view of basic scholarly goals and with the constant exercise of caution, these advantages may be gained. One is that in a good many research projects now being sponsored by governmental agencies the product most desired is a pool of thoroughly and fundamentally trained scientists. The specific goal of the immediate project is of no great consequence. The purpose lies in the unpredictable futures of young men and women. The goal is broadly educational, rather than one of finding specific and immediate facts.

Then there is the matter of laboratories and equipment. Anyone who is at all experienced in university administration is familiar with the able scholar who is in dire need of money with which to buy a spectroscope, a centrifuge, or an electron microscope. But, as is so often the case, the coffers are empty. Along comes a proposal

for a research contract which is quite appropriate to the scholar's basic field of investigation. Through it he can obtain what we cannot supply, and almost always the sponsors are quite generous as to the other uses the scholar may make of the precious and costly equipment which he has been able to purchase with their funds. It is by no means an ideal solution. Universities themselves ought to be able to supply the scholar with what he needs to do his work. But, being completely realistic, you and I know that, more often than not, this is not possible at present.

There is also the matter of employment and research opportunities for graduate students. In selecting the contract research projects in which it proposes to engage, the wise university will look carefully toward those which afford valid and uncompromised teaching opportunities. The purist would have us think that there is no such thing, but I cannot agree. In many instances the graduate student can earn his living while working under the guidance of a competent scholar upon a valid research problem.

But what must be done if the advantages are to be gained and the dangers avoided? First of all, the program of contract or sponsored research must not exist in its own right or as a separate and independent function of the university. It must be a part of and controlled by a total program of research which has been planned and is being carried forward by the department, the college, or the university. Secondly, it must not be allowed to drain off the best scholarly talent by a superior competitive position on the campus. Finally, every proposal should be carefully measured in terms of its teaching opportunities, what it does to the scholar's time and how it relates to the larger and much more important total research program. No contract should be entered into until all such factors have been considered with great care.

A second area in which there are presently strong demands and heavy pressures is known by several names. On some

campuses it is called extended or continuing education, on others it may be referred to as non-credit course work. By whatever name, I am sure that it is familiar to all of you. Suddenly, it seems, great numbers of people from all walks of life have made the startling discovery that there is something to be learned on a college or university campus. Some are highly trained members of the loftiest professions. Others have never before set foot on a campus save, perhaps, to attend a football game or to witness the graduation of a son or daughter. They come to us with urgent requests for assistance, usually in the form of non-credit teaching. Often they have what I call built-in motivation. In their daily work or in their personal lives they have encountered problems or challenges which cause them to turn to the campus.

What shall we do with them? Ought we to reject the lot, saying that for best use the scholar's time must be devoted exclusively to research and the teaching of formal courses for registered, full-time students? Or should we take a closer look? I know that, on at least one campus, these requests for non-credit teaching services are viewed first of all from the public relations angle. The first questions asked are not about the solid educational values involved. Neither are they about the relationships of these service ventures to the best possible use of the scholar's time. Decisions are made primarily upon the basis of what the pay-off will be in advertising. I think that you will agree with me that this approach must be rejected.

But let us consider carefully before we turn them all away as debilitating and wasteful. One of the great problems of higher education is to get away from the plaguing and paradoxical idea that Commencement marks a day of completion. I have often said on our own campus that we have planned many of our programs of instruction as though what should be a lifetime of learning must be compressed within four brief years. Too often our goal has been a finished product—one ready

for his first job and little more. Too often we have been successful—we have graduated young men and women who are finished with education.

Now, I think, the trend is shifting all over America. We are beginning to look upon the diploma as an invitation to learn, not a certificate of completion. More and more our effort is to stimulate and prepare the student for a lifetime of self-education. And if this be our goal, then we cannot turn away from those who are trying to practice what we preach. Moreover, we dare not limit our attention to our own graduates. If we are truly devoted to the principle that learning should be a lifelong process for all, then we have an obligation to give heed to those who, perhaps in some small and beginning way, turn to the college or university campus for guidance and help.

Again there must be due caution lest we so dilute our efforts that there will be little profit in any. Let me suggest just a few simple criteria which may be used. First of all, do we have something to offer which is in keeping with the talents of our scholars and the basic purposes of the educational institution? It would be easy to transform the campus into a vast county fair. Our scholars might become booth managers or even hucksters offering bargains in education to one and all. Not long ago I was visited by a representative of the interstate trucking industry who wanted us to set up a school for service managers. Obviously, we had nothing to offer except the time of our faculty members which would be used for administrative purposes. My visitor had powerful pressures behind him but his request was courteously refused.

But another person came to me with a request for a non-credit course for volunteer workers with spastic children. We had much to offer and our scholars in related fields were eager to accept this real opportunity to extend their knowledge and increase the public understanding.

A second criterion concerns the nature of the teaching to be done. Is the venture

designed simply to acquaint the participants with the latest gadgets and tricks of the trade? Or is it designed for learning in its best sense? Will the effect be a lasting one, enabling the student to go on to new situations and new problems as they come to him in later days? Is the venture designed to hand out solutions or to develop the individual's ability to face his own future?

Finally, there is the question of financial support. Among college and university administrators there seems to be a feeling that in each separate case work of this nature should be self-supporting. The result may be that the use of the scholar's time is determined by the highest bid, rather than by the educational opportunities afforded. For example, I know of one non-credit short course which is offered at a fee of \$500 per person for a period of only two weeks. It is an excellent course and I have no question about its educational value. It is a good use of the scholar's time. But I am deeply concerned about equally valuable efforts in other fields where the educational opportunities are just as great and the scholars just as eager to extend their influence. In many cases the problem is that, persons who are eager to learn are left far behind if we make our decisions upon the basis of competitive bids. If these efforts are to be considered as educationally sound, as a wise use of the scholar's time and an extension of his influence, then colleges and universities must make such provisions as will assure the selection of efforts upon the basis of their educational value.

In summary, the colleges and universities of America are now being overwhelmed by requests and even demands for the most precious thing they possess—the time of their scholars. In many ways this new demand is most gratifying. It reveals a new respect for the man of learning, a new interest in a lifetime of self-education. It also affords many opportunities which, if wisely chosen, may be used to extend and expand the influence of the scholar. But there are dangers along

the way. We must not let ourselves be carried away by this new wave of popularity. The basic and determining factor is the sharply limited number of scholars and teachers. Our effort must always be to see that their talents are used to the best possible effect. And that effect should be

measured over a generation, not over days and weeks. The seed of their influence, wisely selected and nurtured with care, may not be used today or even tomorrow. But, in due season, it will bring a rich and abundant harvest.

The Scholar's Time: How It Is Best Used

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trolled. There is the burden of paper work. That should be kept down by keeping the numbers in composition courses, for example, as low as possible. In all courses the number of examinations and reports should be watched. Of course, students need chances to measure their progress, to check their standards and methods of work, but not at the expense of the fresh and stimulating use of the class and lecture hour. It is an inspiration for a teacher to meet the inquiries and the needs of a serious student, but any chasing after the uninterested should be kept to a minimum. Under our circumstances we shall long have to make provision for the rescue of the ill-prepared, but time spent on trying to make the indifferent or

the lazy work should be saved wherever possible. The impact of a firm judgment of unsatisfactory work and even leaves of absence to reflect on basic purpose and motivation offer a much sounder treatment for the kind of student who does not know whether he wants an education or not. A university education is a great privilege which no one should be encouraged to take for granted, much less be driven to. The whole university procedure should put the stress on individual enterprise in learning as well as in teaching. Only under such circumstances will the scholar's time be conserved for what it should be used for—the advancement of learning and the ennobling of man's estate.

The Humanities in a Small College¹

CURIOSITY KILLED A CAT, so the saying goes. The word is likely to be used in a derogatory sense in every day discourse, inferring a snoopy interest in matters that properly do not concern us. Yet intellectual curiosity is a driving force causing prolonged concentration on worthwhile subjects. It explains why a person will spend hours in a museum looking at great pictures; why people go to concerts or listen to music on records over and over; why readers seek the stimulus of great books.

The untrained mind must have a certain curiosity which leads him to peruse a comic sheet or *True Story* magazine. Naïve ears are contented by the simple melodies and elemental rhythms of the Hit Parade, never having developed a curiosity concerning the subtle complications of counterpoint and advanced harmony that characterize great music, as in the symphonies of Johannes Brahms. The surge and counter thrust of a melody in waltz time being accompanied by chords following a march rhythm, for example, gives the intellectually curious something to watch for. In a novel the sophisticated reader demands a certain amount of logical sequence of cause and effect, related to psychological treatment of interesting human beings travelling toward a climax.

Likewise, an art-lover will be curious about the way the artist uses modeling, mass, color, texture, perspective, and foreshortening to effect the kind of overall excellence which fills us with awe in the presence of a masterpiece. A friend of

mine told me how she had come away from an art exhibit limp and exhausted. At the time I wondered why the exhibit should have had that effect on her. Since then I have discovered many ways in which one's curiosity can be stirred in a gallery of pictures—so that one comes away hoping to hold fixed in memory the unearthly loveliness to be found in certain paintings.

In our class in the Humanities at Wisconsin State College at Eau Claire, we seek to awaken intellectual curiosity in students as to what great pictures and music and literature can do for them. Our attention turns in the beginning to the *subject* of a work of art. Soon we find that the majority of the great masterpieces draw their subjects from religion or mythology. So we go back to the Bible to review some of its wonderful stories and refresh our minds on place names and important people. Then we revive legends drawn from lives of the Saints which have inspired many works of art. The painters of the Renaissance in particular drew upon religious themes, as exemplified by the paintings of the Sistine Chapel in Rome.

Greek mythology is a fertile source of inspiration also. Therefore we read from Homer's account of the Trojan War; and a play by Sophocles or Euripides; as well as the *Apology* and *Phaedo* of Plato. The very first operas were meant to be revivals of Greek theatrical treatment, with a chorus chanting its lines. Since Opera combines all the fine arts, we check the literary background, see pictures of costumes and scenery, and listen to significant passages recorded by great artists. A comparison of Goethe's *Faust* and Gounod's operatic version is rewarding. Norse mythology gave Richard Wagner the sub-

¹ NOTE: Many fear that the humanities as the primary source of understanding spiritual and intellectual values are being seriously disregarded in this nuclear age. For this reason, this narrative is a timely account of an interesting method of teaching them.
—EDITOR.

ject for his great "Ring" operas. His principal innovation was the "leitmotif," where the orchestra calls to mind a person, place, or idea (such as Fate) by playing the melody associated with that person or idea. Because of their great length, we must be content to hear recordings only of certain more powerful passages.

Having noted the part Subject plays in attracting attention, we inquire next into the Medium of a work of art: What is it made of? The statue is made of clay, wood, stone or bronze; the picture is watercolor, oil painting, or tempore. The music is performed by singers or instruments of string, wind, or percussion. The writer expresses himself by means of words, which should be understood by those who speak his language. We read foreign books together in translation. At this point, the student is urged to learn to read the works in the original. However, if he is not able to do this, is it not better to read an English translation than to remain unacquainted with many great books?

How is a work of art put together? This brings up the matter of organization. We expect plays to be divided into acts and scenes; symphonies are divided into movements; novels into chapters and paragraphs. Pictures may be pyramidal, symmetrical, or circular. Architecture follows a blueprint.

We are likewise curious as to the personality, the style of the creator and how he captures his effects. Can we classify him as Romantic, Classicist, Impressionist, or Realist to help us better comprehend his methods?

Finally, we would attempt to decide "How good is the work of art?" Before

passing judgment, we hope to cast off prejudices, to meet more of the examples of what posterity has found to be really great. Then our curiosity may experiment beyond into contemporary works. We should be able to form an opinion and defend it—at all times being honest with ourselves even though our evaluation may reveal our ignorance. As time passes, our taste will change (for the better, we trust). We find very inspiring our text, *The Humanities*, by professors Dudley and Faricy, of Stevens College in Missouri.

How do we know that intellectual curiosity is being strengthened in the minds of our students? There are a few clues, though there is no absolute means of measuring this kind of progress. For instance, a surprising number of our pupils are getting abroad. Some are sent over by the Armed Forces, others manage to go on their own. Some have come back to ask me where they will find things in Europe that were praised in class. Others who have gone into teaching have expressed surprise at how many times they find practical use for knowledge picked up in this class (which makes no attempt to be functional but rather to enrich the inner man). Certain former students report that they are finding satisfaction in listening to recordings of serious music, whereas they had no interest in such before sitting in our midst. Others are seen at performances of Metropolitan Opera in Minneapolis every year in the spring.

Time alone can tell whether our primed curiosity has been worth the effort. If classroom response may serve as a criterion, there is reason to feel that some intellectual curiosity is definitely being aroused.

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Probation, Suspension, and Related Problems¹

PROBATION, SUSPENSION, AND RELATED POLICIES at West Liberty State College are established by faculty action and administered by the appropriate officials and an administration-faculty Committee on Admissions and Credits. Members of the West Liberty State College Chapter of the American Association of University Professors, preparing to participate in a review of policies, studied recent literature and investigated, by questionnaire, current practices at 139 colleges and universities.

SURVEY OF LITERATURE

In an excellent synthesis of "The Functions of Measurement in Educational Placement" Henry Chauncey and Norman Frederiksen² report on the validity and reliability of the following devices used in screening candidates for admission to college: rank in class, high school average, aptitude and achievement tests, letters of recommendation, rating scales, and the personal interview by college officials. They report that rank in class is preferred to high school average since it is less affected by grading practices. Rank in class is also likely to be more effective than aptitude and achievement tests in screening candidates since it reflects such fac-

tors as persistence, motivation, personal adjustment, interests, and study methods. A strong tendency to write glowing accounts reduces the reliability of letters of recommendation. Rating scales designed specifically for the purpose of screening candidates suffer less from a lack of uniformity and systematic coverage than letters of recommendation, but, according to Chauncey and Frederiksen, they tend to reflect academic achievement more than they do the personal qualities of the individual student. The predictive success of the personal interview by college officials is dependent chiefly upon such factors as purpose, conditions under which the interview takes place, and the personal qualifications and training of the interviewer.

At the University of Utah and at other colleges visited by Walter Hahn and Boyd V. Sheets,¹ the responsibility of the college and of administrators goes far beyond the question of dismissal of certain students who have, in the past, failed to live up to the standards of the college. Administrators, through proper coordination and the wise use of administrative power in guiding students, have a unique opportunity to create conditions conducive to the future success of the student. The University of Utah sends a letter to all students who are on the probation list for the first time. The Executive Secretary of the Scholastic Standards Committee is charged with the responsibility for meet-

¹ NOTE: This is the report of a study completed under the auspices of the local chapter of the Association of University Professors. Information was received from 139 colleges accredited by the North Central Association in West Virginia and adjacent states.—EDITOR.

² Henry Chauncey and Norman Frederiksen, "The Functions of Measurement in Educational Placement," *Educational Measurement* ed. by E. F. Lindquist, pp. 85-101. (American Council on Education, 1951).

¹ Walter Hahn and Boyd V. Sheets "The Role of an Administrative Committee in Assisting Failing College Students," *College and University*, XXIX (April, 1954), pp. 378-85.

ing with and rehabilitating students who fall below established standards for the second time. More difficult problems may be referred to the full committee. Similar centralization in handling probation problems at other colleges is reported by Hahn and Sheets.

Reed M. Merrill¹ studied the records of grade point averages of probationary students before and after probation and of the averages of non-probationary students for the same period. He found that probationary students at the University of Washington, at least, made higher grades the two quarters following probation. The averages of non-probationary students did not show a similar increase, an indication that the experience of being on probation was effective. According to the author, this study pointed up a need for improved selection procedures, counseling services, and allied facilities.

In "Relationship Between Academic Load and Scholastic Success of Deficient Students," Dean C. Andrew² suggests that "the counselor should not be overly concerned with academic load for low-ability students, but should seek other factors that might help the student to perform better while he is in college."

Lawrence P. Eblin³ made a statistical analysis of scholastic point systems (4, 3, 2, 1, 0; 3, 2, 1, 0, 0; 3, 2, 1, 0, -1). He concluded that the 4, 3, 2, 1, 0 system is superior since the 3, 2, 1, 0, 0 introduces inequalities and the 3, 2, 1, 0, -1 system is likely to result in more clerical errors due to the use of minus numbers.

Replies to the West Liberty State College questionnaire indicate that scholastic point rating systems have been selected on the basis of chance factors rather than

on the merits of a particular rating system.

Roy E. Warman¹ studied the records of students who applied for readmission to two colleges at Ohio State University and who were referred to the University Counseling and Testing Center as a part of the petitioning process. He found that (1) the counselor's prognosis has a moderate relationship to action taken by the colleges, (2) the counselor's record for identifying those who made satisfactory progress was better than his record of those who did not, and (3) counselors gave too much emphasis to tested scholastic ability and not enough emphasis to less objective factors.

Members of the Chapter felt that a comparative study of current policies in schools of similar size and purpose would be valuable in relating research to practice.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire was sent to all colleges accredited by the North Central Association having an enrollment between 500 and 2,000, to all colleges in other states bordering on West Virginia which are in the same size bracket, and to all West Virginia colleges regardless of size or accreditation. The *World Almanac* for 1955 was used for the enrollment figures. In addition to questions concerning probation and counseling and the related problems of admissions and suspension, each institution was asked to specify the type of curriculum (liberal arts, teacher training, multipurpose, etc.) the degrees granted, and whether it was a private, state-supported, or church-related institution.

Two hundred and twenty-two questionnaires were mailed. Without any follow-up attempts the number returned was 139 or 63 per cent. Four letters from persons who, for one reason or another, did not fill out the questionnaire brought the total

¹ Reed M. Merrill, "An Evaluative Study of Probation Students' Academic Performance in a University," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVIII (September, 1954), pp. 37-45.

² Dean C. Andrew, "Relationship Between Academic Load and Scholastic Success of Deficient Students," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXIV (January, 1956), pp. 268-70.

³ Lawrence P. Eblin, "A Comparison of Scholastic Point Systems," *College and University*, XXX (October, 1954), pp. 12-17.

¹ Roy E. Warman, "A Study of Applicants for Readmission to College," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXIV, (May, 1956), pp. 553-58.

response to 65 percent. According to figures supplied by the respondents, four of the 139 colleges had enrollments under 500 and four over 2,000. The number of responses as well as comments indicated that many registrars consider that the questions raised are important ones.

ADMISSIONS POLICIES

Most of the colleges returning questionnaires use one or more of the following criteria for determining which applicants should be admitted:

1. Proof of graduation from an accredited high school.
2. Results of a high school equivalency examination.
3. Proof of completion of minimum number of prescribed units in designated subjects.
4. Satisfactory high school record as stated in transcript.
5. Rank in graduating class or average as stated in transcript.
6. Satisfactory academic and personal qualities reported by letter of recommendation, rating scale, or interview.

Church-related colleges may require, in addition, a recommendation from the church of the applicant or other evidence of acceptance of the ideals of the college, while state-supported colleges may have more strict admission requirements for out-of-state residents. Some teachers colleges specify that applicants having physical, speech, and personality defects will not be admitted. Doubtful candidates may be considered individually by admissions officers or committees.

Students who do not meet fully the admission requirements are admitted on a conditional or probational basis by 86.8 percent of the colleges included in the study. Several indicated that it was not a common policy to admit students on probation and that the number of students so admitted was very small. One college reported that the number would not exceed 2 percent of the total enrollment.

Some of the reasons most frequently mentioned for conditional acceptance of students are low marks in high school, failure to complete the high school course,

graduation from non-accredited schools, deficiency in mathematics or other subjects, and, in the case of transfer students, an unsatisfactory record at the previous college. A few state colleges, required by law to admit all graduates of accredited high schools in the state, admit on probation those in the lowest fourth of the graduating class. Students admitted on probation are usually treated the same as other probationary students except that they may be given only a limited length of time, one or two semesters, to make up the deficiency.

Colleges usually admitting only students meeting all admission requirements make exceptions for certain classes of students. Veterans and other mature students who have not graduated from high school may be permitted to make up the work after admission, and those with low high school marks may be given an opportunity to prove their ability to do college work. One college accepts satisfactory work in summer school as evidence of such ability. A church-related college stated that "a few are admitted when there is evidence of maturity and new experience since previous rating or when it is thought that a limited college experience would increase the potential contribution to society."

Transfer students may be admitted on probation either because the previous college was not accredited or because of the failure of the student to meet its scholastic requirements. Some colleges make all marks of transfer students a part of the total record while others record only grades and courses acceptable. The latter policy gives the transfer student with low marks an advantage over students who have done all their work at one college, since their failures or "D" grades are not accepted or recorded. Colleges requiring a "C" average for good standing usually require that a transfer student's marks be equal to a "C" average if he is to avoid being admitted on probation. Colleges requiring less than a "C" average to avoid being placed on probation may ad-

mit the transfer student on probation if his marks are such that he would have been placed on probation had he remained at the college he previously attended. One state teachers college requires the approval of the president before probationary students are accepted.

CUT-OFF POINTS

In establishing cut-off points, over 85 percent of the colleges included in the study use a numerical rating system to translate letter grades into averages or into honor points or point deficits. Other colleges require either a "C" average or that the student pass a certain percentage of the academic load. Colleges requiring less than a "C" average for good standing usually employ a graduated scale which approaches a "C" average during the junior or senior year. This is particularly true of colleges using honor point or point deficit systems since these procedures provide a built-in graduated scale as a result of cumulative honor points working against a fixed allowable deficit.

More than half of the replies (50.6 percent) came from colleges requiring less than a "C" average both for removal from good standing and for removal from probation. Approximately one-fifth (21.8 percent) place students on probation at a point somewhat lower than a "C" average but require a "C" average before reinstatement in good standing becomes effective, and a fourth (25.3 percent) insist on "C" averages for good standing. The remaining 2.3 percent of the colleges replying either have no written policy or consider each case on its own merits without recourse to established regulations.

Private colleges seem more likely than church-related or state-controlled colleges to set the cut-off point below the level of a "C" average. The private colleges are also less likely to have a written probation policy. Apparently colleges which must accept all graduates of accredited high schools within the state find it necessary to have a definitely established policy in

order to maintain academic standards or to avoid over-crowding.

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENT BODY ON PROBATION

The percentage of students on probation in the reporting colleges ranges from less than 1 percent to 37 percent of freshman classes and from less than 1 percent to 23 percent of upperclassmen. The medians are 10.5 percent and 6 percent respectively. Many factors may affect these percentages. Colleges accepting graduates of accredited high schools are more likely to have a higher percentage of students who do not achieve academic success. Colleges with more rigorous entrance requirements will tend to enroll more potentially successful students and therefore will have a lower proportion of probationary students. Points of demarcation between probation and good standing and differences in levels required for good standing and probation will also affect the number of students on probation as will the length of time students may remain in college after loss of good standing. Effective counseling services also might be expected to affect the number on probation since it is generally believed that many students would improve their averages under proper guidance.

It would seem advisable to adjust admission, probation, and suspension policies so that the percentage of students on probation might be maintained at a level near the medians indicated above. Probation applied for several semesters in succession, or recurring frequently during a student's college career, is likely to lose effectiveness. A large proportion of the student body on probation may create difficulties in classroom and campus discipline, overwork the counseling service, and weaken the impact of probation.

POLICIES REGARDING STUDENTS ON PROBATION

Over half of the colleges (54.2 percent) require no reduction in load; less than one-third of the colleges (31.6 percent) report

they require students on probation to take a reduced load; and 14.2 percent consider each case on its merits. Church-related colleges are more likely to require a reduction in load than other colleges.

Three-fourths of the colleges do not require students on probation to drop extra-curricular activities. Two-thirds of this group recommend it frequently. Private colleges are more likely to require students to drop extra-curricular activities than either church-related or state colleges.

Students on probation who work part-time are required to take a reduced load in 40.2 percent of the colleges; of those colleges which do not require reduction in load, 77.2 percent frequently recommend it. Colleges reporting the admission of students on an individual basis are less likely to require a reduction in load.

SUSPENSION POLICIES

In 16.8 percent of the colleges reporting, suspension is dependent on the length of time the student has been on probation. An additional 38.9 percent of the colleges suspend students for lack of scholastic improvement, while in 44.3 percent of the colleges they may be suspended both for length of time on probation and for lack of scholastic improvement. Colleges admitting all graduates of accredited high schools within the state are more likely to make suspension dependent upon the length of time students have been on probation.

Thirty percent of the colleges make suspension automatic and 70 percent make it discretionary. State colleges are more likely, private colleges less likely, to make suspension mandatory. In 68.4 percent of the colleges reporting, a committee representing administration or administration and faculty determines which students shall be suspended. In about 20 percent of the colleges suspension is the responsibility of the dean of the college. The dean of personnel and the registrar are less frequently charged with this responsibility. It would appear that colleges reporting high standards of admission in

terms of rank-in-class tend to favor committee judgments.

Over 85 percent of the colleges report that they readmit students who have previously been suspended. "Suspension" is more likely to be permanent in state colleges than in the privately controlled colleges. Almost 60 percent of the colleges which readmit students do so after one quarter or one semester. More than one semester, stated usually as three quarters or one school year, is required in about 20 percent of the colleges. Nearly 20 percent of the colleges indicate that they consider each case individually. Church colleges are more likely to require one semester before readmission.

Readmission is mandatory upon the college in only 10 percent of all colleges reporting. However, readmission is mandatory in 15 percent of the state colleges. In 81.4 percent of the colleges the decision to readmit students is made by a committee or an administrator and committee. The dean of the college is given this responsibility in 12.8 percent of the colleges.

TRENDS

About 55 percent of the colleges reported basic changes in probation policies within the last five years. Colleges which report having made basic changes delegate to a committee the authority to suspend and readmit students more frequently than those colleges which do not so report. The former are more likely to make "suspension" permanent, but less likely to require a reduction in academic load or in extra-curricular activities.

A number of proposals now under consideration would have the effect of further enforcing and raising standards of probation and suspension. One college states: "Teeth are being put into what was previously a rather passive policy." The following proposals are under consideration by one or more of the colleges reporting: (1) make admissions more selective, (2) raise point averages required, (3) reduce semester time on probation and put more teeth into suspension policy, (4) dismiss stu-

dents who are academically deficient rather than reduce academic loads, and (5) appoint a special person to handle suspension. Other colleges reported they were studying plans to move from highly individualized procedures to more regularized procedures, and to take action on the basis of the last semester's grades rather than the total record; they are moving to require reduction in extra-curricular activities and outside work for some probation students, and to allow students to clear their records on the basis of summer school work. A few of the colleges reporting appear to have encountered difficulties as a result of dismissing students in the middle of the year for academic reasons.

Counseling proposals under consideration indicate a recognized need for closer coordination between counseling services and instruction, and a need for more and improved counseling services. Some plans advanced by college administrations for meeting these needs are (1) placing more responsibility in the offices of the deans of students, (2) appointing a special dean of freshmen, (3) appointing full and part-time counselors, (4) selecting from among the faculty a smaller group of counselors with time allowed for such work, (5) providing in-service training programs, and (6) increasing the availability of information on failing students. Other proposals suggest giving students a greater opportunity to select their own counselors, and making the counselor's advice mandatory with respect to a number of problems.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The West Liberty State College Chapter of the American Association of University Professors obtained and studied comparable data on probationary and related practices in 139 colleges accredited by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges and other colleges in states bordering on West Virginia. The study suggests the need for further and more detailed investigation of prevailing practices and of the effects of

these practices upon academic standards and the students concerned.

Research indicates that the number of students on probation is affected chiefly by (1) admissions policies, including the proportion of students admitted conditionally, (2) probation policies, including established demarcation points between probation and good standing, and the number and length of probationary periods permitted students before dismissal or suspension, (3) scholastic standards and grading practices, and (4) suspension and readmission policies.

Although a large proportion of the colleges reporting (86.8 percent) admit students on probation, it is not known to what extent this practice is justifiable. It seems apparent that lack of academic success in college is related not only to scholastic ability but also to such factors as persistence, motivation, personal adjustment, and study habits. Valid and reliable measures of these qualities would appear to be helpful in screening candidates for admission to college and for counseling students once admitted.

A few of the state colleges, required by law to admit all graduates of accredited high schools within the state, admit students in the lower fourth of their graduating classes on a probational basis. This practice may result in the admission to college of more potential failures and may also create psychological and social problems for the students so admitted. It would appear more reasonable, and surely more charitable, to admit to college students of low high school achievement only on the basis of supplementary evidence indicating that academic success is at least a possibility. Until state laws are changed, however, it would seem advisable to reduce the number of terms probationary students are permitted to remain in college without making progress sufficient to promise eventual graduation. Since most colleges refuse to graduate students who do not attain a "C" average, it might be a kindness to probationary students to advise them to with-

draw if they cannot overcome their deficiencies fairly early in their academic careers. There is some evidence that many of the colleges which admit all graduates of accredited high schools have recognized the problem, since they have regularized their probationary procedures and have made suspension dependent upon the length of time a student has been on probation.

Some colleges report that they record all grades of transfer students, whether those grades are acceptable or not. Others do not record grades of "D" or "F." Further study of this aspect of academic recording is needed. By omitting to record extremely low or failing grades, the college may weaken its counseling service and may also give the transfer student an unfair advantage over resident students who are subject to probation, suspension, or dismissal and who cannot have their failures "erased." Some college officials hold the belief that the student who transfers to another college immediately after dismissal for academic reasons does little or no better in his new situation but that students who gain greater maturity and then return to college are apt to achieve academic success. A study of the effect of transfer on immature and mature students might indicate the most practical manner of handling low transfer grades.

Approximately one-half of the colleges reporting establish the cut-off point between good standing and probation at a point somewhat below a "C" average, although they require a "C" average for graduation. Further study of the efficacy of the various cut-off points might indicate the most satisfactory point for maintenance of academic standards and the likelihood of graduation and vocational success. More study is also needed to answer two important questions: What is the most effective length of time for maintaining probation? Should probation be

determined on the basis of a student's total record or on his record for a preceding semester or year?

Research reveals many causes for the failure of students in college. Some students, without doubt, achieve poorly because of the undue pressure of outside work or extra-curricular activities. However, it would seem preferable to treat each case on its own merits and require reduced academic loads or abstention from extra-curricular activities only when necessary.

Probation and suspension are serious matters for the student and for his college. They are important aspects of the larger problems of providing adequate problem-centered and developmental guidance for the student and for maintaining the academic standards of the college. It would seem incumbent upon the college to institute a vigorous guidance program for every student on probation, so that he may be helped to regain and maintain good standing. Decision to suspend the student should be taken only after every effort has been made to rehabilitate him. It would seem advisable to treat all suspension cases individually and consider them in committee rather than to rely completely upon a catalog statement or the judgment of a single individual. Readmission should also be made a committee responsibility. Students should not be readmitted after suspension until there is evidence of maturity and the likelihood of academic success.

This study indicates that many factors in probationary and related policies need further study and that counseling services might well become increasingly involved in the determination of the necessity for probation or suspension in individual cases. The study also suggests that the primary need is to rehabilitate the student, and when that fails, to direct him toward activities promising him greater chance of success.

The Scholastic Achievement of GED Students at Indiana University¹

ALTHOUGH EDUCATORS AGREE that the best way to become educated is by regularly attending school, they have for some years given consideration to accreditation by means of tests. Many veterans who had not completed high school prior to their entrance into the Armed Services in World War II found that by taking the High School Level General Educational Development Test Battery that many colleges and universities accepted passing scores on the GED tests as admission instruments. In addition, veterans were granted equivalency certificates or diplomas by their high schools (if they attended one) or by their state boards of education. With the advent of the G.I. Bill many of the GED veterans were accepted in colleges and universities throughout the country.

Numerous articles have appeared in the literature relating to the performance of GED students in college. Putnam² found that GED students had a slightly higher average in college than regularly admitted students. Roeber,³ in comparing the achievement of GED and non-GED students, found that although the GED students had reached an average educational

age approximating the ninth grade, their achievement in college was sufficiently high to warrant the use of GED test results as one criterion of college success. He found that the high school graduates made better grades in college than GED students. Milligan, Lins, and Little⁴ found no apparent relationship between high school units completed and university success. They found that the best measures for predicting university success were the GED Test I (Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression), the composite of the five high school level GED tests, and the American Council on Education Examination for college freshmen.

Mumma,² on the other hand, found that the GED students did not fare as well in their course as other students. Hartung's findings³ are in agreement with Mumma's. He avers that GED students made a poor record, and that a GED test score had not proved a satisfactory substitute for high school work.

In a comprehensive survey designed to obtain the view of secondary school officials and college administrators, Wardlaw⁴ found that although the view of the two groups differed, they agreed that high

¹ NOTE: This is a timely inquiry into the comparative educational achievements of male students admitted to a North Central institution of higher learning on the basis of their scores on the widely used General Educational Development Test Battery. The subjects in this report were veterans of World War II, who had not completed high school prior to their induction into the Armed Services.—EDITOR.

² Phil H. Putnam, "Scholastic Achievement of GED Students at the Vanport Extension Center," *School and Society*, LXVI (August, 1947), 161-63.

³ Edward C. Roeber, "The GED Tests as a Measure of College Aptitude" *Educational Research Bulletin* (Ohio State University), XXIX (February, 1950), 40-41.

⁴ Edward E. Milligan, L. J. Lins, and Kenneth Little, "The Success of Non-High School Graduates at the University of Wisconsin," *School and Society*, LXVII (January, 1948), 27-29.

² Richard A. Mumma, "The College Record of Students Admitted on the Basis of GED Tests," *College and University*, XXVI (October, 1950), 79-86.

³ Arthur W. Hartung, "Case of the GED Student," *School and Society*, LXVIII (August, 1948), 137-38.

⁴ H. Pat Wardlaw, "The Use and Value of GED Tests for College Entrance of Veterans of the Armed Forces," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVI (January, 1952), 295-301.

school credit, diplomas, or certificates should be given to veterans satisfactorily completing GED tests.

The present study investigates the achievement of male veterans admitted to Indiana University on the basis of GED tests and compares their achievement with an equal number of randomly selected male high school graduates from 1946 to 1950. Data on both groups cover the same period.

The sources of data for the study were student personnel files in the Registrar's office and in the Office of Admissions at Indiana University.

Credit point ratios were computed by dividing the number of quality points earned by the student by the number of credit hours. Credit hours earned were based on the number of courses the student had taken in school prior to the summer session of 1952. Quality points were figured on the basis of *A*, 5 points; *B*, 4 points; *C*, 3 points; *D*, 2 points; and *F*, or *WF*, 1 point. For example, a student having 30 hours with two hours of *A*, 10 hours of *B*, 12 hours of *C*, four hours of *D*, and two hours of *F*, would have a credit point ratio of 96/30, or 3.20. This would be equivalent to an average slightly over the letter grade of "*C*."

There are no complete data on the number of students who have been admitted to college on the basis of satisfactory completion of the high school level GED tests. Some colleges have required that the GED veteran obtain the equivalency certificate from his high school or from his state board of education; others have accepted the GED test results *per se* as admission instruments. Indiana University, where this study was conducted, admitted veterans on the basis of standard scores of 35 or above on each of the five high school level GED tests, or an average standard score of 45 or more on the test battery during the period covered by this study.

The comparison of the achievement of 307 GED students and 307 non-GED students was based upon mean unweighted credit point ratios earned in college by each group.

Such factors as: mean number of units earned in high school; mean unweighted credit point ratios earned in college; age; and distribution of college degrees were used to compare the two groups.

The mean number of units earned by GED students and by the non-GED students in high school appear in Table I.

TABLE I
MEAN NUMBER OF UNITS EARNED IN HIGH SCHOOL
BY GED AND NON-GED STUDENTS

	GED	Non-GED
Number of students	264*	301†
\bar{X} number of credits	9.08	17.43

* 43 GED students earned no high school units.

† 6 foreign students not included.

An examination of Table I reveals that the GED students earned an average of slightly over nine units in high school as compared to 17.43 units earned by the non-GED high school graduates.

The age distribution and the mean unweighted credit point ratios earned by GED and non-GED students according to age at the time they entered the university appear in Table II.

TABLE II
MEAN UNWEIGHTED CREDIT POINT RATIOS MADE BY
GED AND NON-GED STUDENTS
ACCORDING TO AGE

Age (Months)	GED			Non-GED		
	N	\bar{X} CPR	\bar{X} Age	N	\bar{X} CPR	\bar{X} Age
Below 240	25	2.85		158	3.16	
240-300	219	2.77		122	3.15	
over 300	63	3.13		27	3.25	
Totals	307	2.82	272	307	3.16	249

It can be seen from Table II that the mean unweighted credit point ratios earned by GED and non-GED students were 2.82 and 3.16, respectively. The GED students and the non-GED students who were 25 years of age or over at the time they entered the University earned

the highest mean unweighted credit point ratios of their respective groups. The next highest achievers for the GED and non-GED groups were in the below-20 years of age category. (A credit point ratio of 3.00 is equivalent to the letter grade of "C" in this study.) It can be seen that the GED group achieved slightly less than "C" average; whereas the non-GED group achieved slightly above the letter grade of "C."

The average age of the GED students was found to be 272 months, or approximately 22 years 8 months. The average age of the non-GED students was 249 months, or 20 years, 9 months. The GED students were, on the average, 23 months or approximately two years older than the non-GED students.

One of the criteria indicative of college success is the attainment of the college degree. As stated, this study covers the records made by students from 1946 to June, 1952. Table III shows the distribution of degrees earned by GED and non-GED students according to major subject areas. It reveals that the GED students earned bachelors' degrees in 20 major subject areas; whereas the non-GED students earned degrees in 23 major subject areas. The GED students earned three advanced degrees, including one Doctor of Medicine; whereas the non-GED students earned four advanced degrees, including two Doctors of Medicine. The frequency distribution of degrees earned by the GED students shows that GED students earned the greatest number of degrees in Business (29), followed by Education (13) and Physical Education (4). The frequency distribution of degrees earned by the non-GED students shows that they earned the greatest number of degrees in Business (38), followed by Education (9), and Journalism (6).

Although the GED students did not attain as many college degrees as the non-GED students, the degrees earned by the GED students compare favorably with the number of degrees earned by non-GED students.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREES ACCORDING TO MAJOR
SUBJECT AREAS EARNED BY GED AND NON-
GED STUDENTS AT INDIANA UNIVERSITY,
1946-1952

Degree	GED	Non-GED
<i>Bachelors' degrees</i>		
Anatomy	2	4
Bacteriology	0	1
Biology	0	1
Botany	1	1
Business	29	38
Chemistry	3	5
Dentistry	1	2
Economics	1	3
Education	13	9
English	0	1
French	0	1
Geology	3	1
Government	2	2
History	1	0
Journalism	2	6
Law	3	1
Mathematics	1	0
Medical Technology	0	1
Music Education	0	2
Physical Education	4	1
Physics	0	1
Police Administration	2	0
Psychology	2	2
Social Service	2	0
Sociology	1	1
Spanish	1	2
Speech	1	2
Zoology	0	1
<i>Advanced Degrees</i>		
MBA	1	0
MD	1	2
MS (Education)	1	1
MS (Physics)	0	1
Total	78	91

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study has been to investigate the achievement of 307 veterans admitted to Indiana University, 1946-1950, on the basis of General Education Development tests and to compare their achievement with a randomly selected group of 307 students admitted during the same period on the basis of high school graduation.

This comparison shows that although the non-GED students achieved slightly better credit point ratios than the GED

students, the attainment of the GED group does not compare unfavorably with that of the non-GED group. This is evidenced by the number and type of degrees earned by each of the two groups. The GED students earned 46 per cent of the degrees of the two groups, including advanced degrees in Business Administration, Medicine, and Education, and the non-GED students earned 54 per cent, including advanced degrees in Medicine (2), Education, and Physics.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study show that the

use of GED test scores as college admission instruments provides many American adults with the opportunity to obtain a college education. Care should be taken by college admissions officers to employ selective criteria, such as the quality of GED test scores, the number of units the GED applicant has earned in high school, and other factors.

The use of GED test scores as instruments of admission to college does not appear to be in opposition to the American philosophy of education—that of providing the citizenry with optimum educational opportunities.

Athletics in the Secondary Schools of the North Central Association¹

IN 1953 THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS through its Activities Committee published a study of the recruitment of athletes by institutions of higher learning among the member schools of the Secondary Commission.²

At the 1955 meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools the Activities Committee was authorized to make further study of athletics in member schools. In searching for criteria on which to base further study of athletics, the Activities Committee found that the check list of the Educational Policies Commission on School Athletics³ was the most practical instrument for the investigation. The Educational Policies Commission granted permission to the Activities Committee to use the check list as the basis for a questionnaire concerning school athletics in the member schools of the Secondary Commission.

PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The questionnaire, comprised of 86 of the 100 items of the check list, was sent to

all member secondary schools, of which 2,125 replied. These returns served as the basis for this report. Dr. Virgil E. Schooler, Assistant Professor of Education at Indiana University, assisted the chairman in preparing the materials, and analyzing and interpreting the information.

Tabulating the findings according to size of school, type of school, and state was rather difficult since a large number of schools failed to check one or more of the appropriate spaces provided for such data. Returns were received from both public and private schools.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire, already referred to, is reproduced below. The topics covered were (1) Purposes of School Athletics; (2) Organization and Administration; (3) Facilities for School Athletics; (4) Personnel for the Athletic Program; (5) Intramural Programs; (6) Interscholastic Athletics for Boys in Senior High School; (7) Athletics for Girls; (8) Financing Athletic Program; and (9) Community Relations.

Two answers were invited to each question. In Column 1, appropriate spaces were provided under the headings, "Y," "N," "U," for the responses to the question about the extent to which a particular school conformed to the practice or policy recommended by the Educational Policies Commission.

In Column 2, appropriate spaces were provided under the headings of "A," "D," "U," for the response to the question about the extent to which the opinions of the principal of a particular school coincided with the implied principle.

¹ NOTE: Abstracted from a report submitted to the Commission on Secondary Schools by the Activities Committee, April 11, 1956, at Chicago. The complete report entitled "A Survey of Athletics in the Secondary Schools of the North Central Association" was published as No. 4 in Volume 32 of the *Bulletin of the School of Education*, Indiana University, July, 1956, pp. viii + 52 (\$1.00). It may be ordered from the Indiana University Bookstore.

Mr. Hughes is chairman of the committee. The other members who participated in the study are: Edward Bechtel, Fergus Falls, Minnesota; George A. Manning, Muskegon, Michigan; Lloyd O. Michael, Evanston, Illinois; and C. A. Semler, Benton Harbor, Michigan. Virgil E. Schooler, of Indiana University, collaborated in the survey.

² *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVIII (October 1953), 174-6.

³ Educational Policies Commission, *School Athletics*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1954.

BASIC INFORMATION

Please check the appropriate space under A, B, and C

A. Size of School

1. 0-199 _____
 2. 200-499 _____
 3. 500-999 _____
 4. 1000 or above _____

B. Type of School

1. Public _____
 2. Private _____
 3. Parochial _____

C. State in which your school is located

- | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Arizona _____ | 7. Kansas _____ | 13. North Dakota _____ |
| 2. Arkansas _____ | 8. Michigan _____ | 14. South Dakota _____ |
| 3. Colorado _____ | 9. Minnesota _____ | 15. Ohio _____ |
| 4. Illinois _____ | 10. Missouri _____ | 16. Oklahoma _____ |
| 5. Indiana _____ | 11. Nebraska _____ | 17. West Virginia _____ |
| 6. Iowa _____ | 12. New Mexico _____ | 18. Wisconsin _____ |
| | | 19. Wyoming _____ |

PURPOSES OF SCHOOL ATHLETICS

Column 1 Column 2
 Y N U* A D U†

1. Does your school have clearly defined goals for its athletic program? . . .
2. Do other teachers, as well as coaches and teachers of physical education, have a part in formulating the purposes of athletics in your school? . . .
3. Do lay citizens have opportunity to express themselves with respect to the purposes of athletics in your school? . . .
4. Are athletics recognized by your school as an integral part of complete education? . . .
5. Are athletic activities in harmony with the objectives of the total educational program? . . .
6. Does your school's athletic program encourage participation in satisfying play by *all* pupils? . . .
7. Does your school in its athletic program seek to contribute to the development of wholesome personalities? . . .
8. Does your school conduct athletics in ways intended to help participants develop health and physical fitness? . . .
9. Does your school seek to conduct athletics in such a way that participants develop enduring play habits, skills, and attitudes? . . .
10. Does your school encourage athletic activities which aid development of desirable social growth and adjustment? . . .
11. Does your school conduct athletics in such a way as to avoid excessive emotional strains and tensions on the part of both players and spectators? . . .
12. Does your school take steps to prevent athletic practices which might be detrimental to the welfare of pupils as individuals? . . .
13. In determining policies and procedures for athletics in your school is the health and welfare of participants considered paramount? . . .
14. Does the school provide adequate protective equipment and other health safeguards for all participants in athletic contests? . . .
15. Are all games and practice sessions conducted in facilities that are hygienic, clean and safe? . . .
16. Is adequate training and conditioning required for all types of athletic competition? . . .
17. Has the approval of a physician been secured for the practices of your school's interscholastic athletic program which involve conditioning, training, and health? . . .
18. Is a thorough health examination required of all participants in both intramural and interscholastic sports before they take part in vigorous athletic competition? . . .
19. Is a postseason health examination required of athletes? . . .

* Key: "Yes," "No," "Undecided."

† Key: "Agree," "Disagree," "Undecided."

Column 1 Column 2
Y N U A D U

- 20. Is emergency medical service available during all practice periods, intramural games, and interscholastic contests held under school auspices?...
- 21. Are athletes who have been injured or ill readmitted to participation only with the written approval of a physician?.....
- 22. Does your school have a written and well-publicized policy regarding the legal and financial responsibilities for injuries incurred in school athletics?
- 23. Even when not legally responsible, does your school have a plan for making financial provisions for the care of injuries incurred in athletics?....
- 24. Does the school seek to prevent injury to the personality development of star athletes from overattention and ego-inflation?.....

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF
SCHOOL ATHLETICS

- 25. Are all athletic activities in your school recognized as the responsibility of the school and under its control?.....
- 26. Are all athletics in your school administered as part of the school's total program of physical education?.....
- 27. Is your school (if a high school) a member of your state high school athletic association or similar organization?.....
- 28. Does your school accept the aid of your state's department of education (or public instruction) in establishing and maintaining high standards in the conduct of school athletics?.....

FACILITIES FOR SCHOOL ATHLETICS

- 29. Does your board of education provide adequate facilities in athletics for *all* students?.....
- 30. Are physical education facilities in your school available to all phases of the program, including required activity classes and intramurals?.....
- 31. Do girls share equally with boys in the use of your school's athletic facilities?.....
- 32. Does your school provide a standard field, court, or play space for each team game and individual sport most popular in your section of the country?.....

PERSONNEL FOR THE ATHLETIC PROGRAM

- 33. Are all who coach athletic teams in your school competently trained and certified as teachers?.....
- 34. Do the athletic coaches have professional training in physical education equivalent to a minor or more?.....
- 35. Do the athletic coaches consistently set good examples in the matter of sportsmanship and personal conduct?.....
- 36. Do athletic coaches use their influence with students to help them with personal problems?.....
- 37. Are those members of the school staff whose chief work is coaching athletics generally regarded by other faculty members as fellow teachers of comparable professional status?.....
- 38. Does the school provide sufficient personnel for the proper instruction and supervision of all participants in the required activity classes, in co-recreation, in intramural sports, and in interscholastic athletics?.....
- 39. Do school authorities seek to maintain at all times a balance in the amount of staff time and instruction given to all phases of physical education, including required activity classes, co-recreation, intramural sports, and interscholastic athletics?.....

INTRAMURAL PROGRAMS

- 40. Does every student in your school system have opportunity for participating in a variety of intramural sports?.....
- 41. Is the intramural sports program conducted as an integral part of the total program of physical education and not as a "feeder" system for interscholastic athletics?.....

Column 1	Column 2
Y N U	A D U

42. Does the intramural sports program serve as a laboratory where students can test the things they are taught in physical education classes?
43. Do most of the students in your school find the intramural program sufficiently interesting, diverse, and convenient that they voluntarily participate in it?
44. Does the school provide opportunities for co-recreation (that is, for boys and girls to play together) through intramural sports?
45. Does the intramural athletic program have good equipment rather than handed-down equipment, worn-out balls, unmarked fields, and poorly organized game situations?

INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS FOR BOYS IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

46. Are interscholastic athletics conducted primarily to serve the needs of students with superior athletic skills?
47. Are games and practice periods for the interscholastic athletics worked into the school schedule with a minimum of interference with the academic program?
48. Are interscholastic games played only with schools that maintain acceptable principles and policies in their conduct of interscholastic athletics?
49. Are interscholastic games played only on school or public property?
50. Does the school observe the rules of its state high school athletic association?
51. Does the school refuse to participate in all postseason tournaments and postseason championship games?
52. Is the board of education adequately informed regarding the interscholastic athletic program?
53. Is the board of education adequately informed regarding the rules and regulations of the state high school athletic association?
54. Are athletes engaged in interscholastic sports held to the same standards of scholarship as other students?
55. Are boys who participate in interscholastic athletics required to attend regular classes in physical education (except during the actual period of their interscholastic participation?)
56. Does the school try to prevent solicitation of its athletes by colleges and universities through tryouts and competitive bidding?
57. Does the school make an effort to develop high standards of good sportsmanship on the part of all students?

ATHLETICS FOR GIRLS

58. Does the school athletic program for girls provide opportunities for all girls to participate according to their needs, abilities, and interests?
59. Are facilities for girls' athletics provided in accordance with the requirements of the girls' program and not on the basis of causing minimum inconvenience to the boys' program?
60. Is the school athletic program for girls under the direction of a competent woman leader who is professionally trained in health and physical education?
61. Does the school include in its girls' athletic program such dual, individual, and recreational sports and games as archery, badminton, bowling, croquet, horseshoes, golf, riding, shuffleboard, skiing, swimming, table tennis, and tennis?
62. Does the school include in its girls' athletic program such team sports as basketball, field hockey, softball, soccer, speedball, and volleyball?
63. Does every girl in the school have an opportunity to compete in team games?
64. Is participation of girls in athletics based on an appraisal of the health status of each participant which takes into account quality and extent of participation, type of activity, individual differences, and general organic condition?

Column 1 Column 2
Y N U A D U

- 65. Are girls prevented from participation, under school auspices, in sports which involve rough and tumble body contact?.....
- 66. Are girls provided opportunities for athletic competition with girls of other schools through such means as play days and sports days?.....
- 67. Are all school athletic contests for girls conducted in accordance with girls' rules?.....
- 68. Is the school's athletic program for girls conducted in conformity with the policies and recommendations contained in *Standards in Sports for Girls and Women*?.....

FINANCING ATHLETIC PROGRAMS

- 69. Does the board of education control the financing of the athletic program?.....
- 70. Is the welfare of participants considered more important than financial gain in determining the athletic policies and practices of your school?...
- 71. Is the size of the budget for athletics in sound proportion to the size of the budget for the rest of the school program?.....
- 72. Is balance maintained in the financial support of all phases of the physical education program, including required activity classes, co-recreation, intramural sports, and interscholastic athletics?.....
- 73. Are the salaries of other teachers equitable in comparison with the salaries of coaches?.....
- 74. Are all athletic moneys, including gate receipts, considered as school funds with records accurately kept and audited?.....
- 75. Is the intramural sports program of your school financed entirely by appropriations from tax funds?.....
- 76. Is your school district moving toward complete financing of the athletic program from tax funds?.....

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

- 77. Is the school actively concerned with providing adequate community athletic facilities for children and youth?.....
- 78. Does the school staff study your community to determine how to use, to improve, and to increase available space for wholesome play for the students enrolled in your school?.....
- 79. Is the school actively interested in providing community athletic programs for children and youth during vacation periods?.....
- 80. Do community organizations look to the school for expert counsel and advice regarding athletic programs?.....
- 81. Does the school assume responsibility for informing the community regarding the standards of good sportsmanship that should be observed at all athletic contests?.....
- 82. Is the conduct of spectators at interscholastic games such as to reflect favorably on the school?.....
- 83. Does the board of education enjoy as much freedom from outside pressures in the selection of a coach as it does in the selection of other teachers?.....
- 84. Does the community support the coach of a boys' varsity team that has a losing season?.....
- 85. Do local newspapers, radio stations, and television stations support clean athletics and have a high regard for standards of good sportsmanship?..
- 86. Are the schools comparatively free from undesirable activities on the part of outside organizations primarily concerned with winning teams in interscholastic games?.....

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of school athletics

Since it is the responsibility of the board of education and the superintendent to

formulate policies for the total instructional program, they also have the same responsibility in formulating the athletic policies. The success of the athletic program will depend upon cooperative plan-

ning by the faculty, parents, students, board of education, representatives of the community, and administrators.

A large number of schools indicate that many of their current practices coincide with the recommended practices of the Educational Policies Commission which should make for an educationally sound athletic program. According to the findings it is rather obvious to the committee that in some schools, however, there is room for considerable improvement in the practice of sound principles of an athletic program.

In the formulation of this over-all plan serious and deliberate action should be directed toward the following suggestions as the survey indicated weaknesses in these areas.

1. A thorough health examination for all participants before and after competing in vigorous intramural or interscholastic activities (Items 18-19).
2. Providing emergency medical service during practice periods, intramural games and interscholastic contests (Item 20) and readmitting athletes who have been injured or ill to active status on the written approval of a physician (Item 21).
3. Formulating and publicizing a policy regarding the legal and financial responsibilities of injuries incurred in school athletics (Item 22) and a plan for making financial provisions for the care of pupils injured in athletics (Item 23).
4. The elimination of those factors which cause excessive emotional strain and tension on the part of both players and spectators (Item 11).
5. The athletic program should be organized to encourage participation in satisfying play for all pupils, not just the physically elite (Item 6).

Organization and administration of school athletics

Those persons responsible for the organization and administration of the athletic program are to be commended for their present practices as well as upon their educational viewpoint.

Some few schools indicate that athletics are not a part of the school's total program of physical education and that they should be separate. This point of view in the judgment of the committee is questionable (Item 26). In general, the organization and administration of school athletics

are being conducted in a very acceptable manner.

Facilities for School Athletics

In order to carry out an athletic program in which all pupils may participate it is necessary to have extensive facilities. This philosophy of providing opportunities for all to participate in athletics has been set up as an ideal in recent years. Since in many instances school buildings and their locations were established before the present concept had taken hold and before such large numbers of pupils were enrolled in our schools, adequate provisions were not made either in size or location of facilities.

The responses to the questions indicate that the facilities are inadequate.

1. Only a little more than one half of the schools indicated that present facilities are adequate (Item 29).
2. Facilities being inadequate, priority is established as to the utility of the existing facilities upon the basis of the relative values held concerning the various phases of athletics. According to the findings intramurals and girls athletics suffer most (Items 30, 40, 45).

Personnel for the athletic program

The responses to the phase of the questionnaire on personnel indicated a close conformity in practice and principle to each item of the stated philosophy of the Educational Policies Commission.

Coaches are certified teachers serving effectively in wise guidance and counselling of boys who participate in the athletic program. They are also considered on an equal basis with fellow teachers having equal professional rank and status.

In only one instance did any considerable number of schools fail to practice the implied principle.

1. Sufficient personnel for proper instruction and supervision of the total athletic program was provided for in only 73 percent of the schools, even though 95 percent agreed with the practice as being sound (Item 38).

Intramural programs

Of all the topics covered in the questionnaire, the member schools are most

vulnerable to justifiable criticism concerning the intramural phases of the athletic program.

Intramural programs are usually intended to provide activities for the many students who do not participate in interscholastic athletics and yet feel that the basic activity classes in physical education are not sufficiently satisfying to meet their needs. Intramurals are valuable in meeting the leisure time needs of pupils. Intramurals provide opportunity also for the development of interests, skills, and attitudes that should carry over into adult life.

Analysis of the responses show non-conformity to recommend practices in the majority of instances.

1. Only 57 percent of the schools provide opportunities for participation in a variety of intramural sports (Item 40).
2. Fifty percent of the schools do not consider the intramural program to be an integral part of the physical education program, nor do they think of it as a laboratory where the things which are taught in physical education classes may be practiced (Item 42).
3. Intramural programs in 50 percent of the schools were not organized in such a way as to be interesting and convenient from the point of view of participation (Item 43).
4. Co-recreational opportunities through intramurals were put in effect in only 31 percent of the schools and only 67 percent believed in them as such on principle (Item 44).

Interscholastic athletics for boys in senior high school

No phase of the educational program of the schools has created so much interest nor generated so much enthusiasm among the pupils and the public as interscholastic athletics. Gate receipts of interscholastic games exceed by far moneys received from any other school activity. So enthusiastic has been the interest in interscholastic athletics that self-centered individuals or groups in the community have applied terrific pressure upon boards of education, coaches, and administrators—often with little regard for the welfare of the players.

So many false values have been attached to interscholastic athletics that it became necessary to form state and na-

tional athletic associations and federations to establish objective criteria for regulatory purposes.

The responses to this phase of the questionnaire indicate that considerable progress has been made and in most instances the interscholastic program is well-organized and functioning properly. There are other instances in which improvement can still be made.

1. In response to the question concerning the primary purpose of interscholastic competition only 60 percent indicated that the primary purpose was to serve the needs of students with superior athletic skills and only 52 percent agreed with it in principle (Item 46).
2. Replies to the other questions indicated that practice and principle were adhered to in more than three-fourths of the schools. With respect to the inquiry concerning required attendance at physical education classes by boys actively engaged in interscholastic competition, only 76 percent answered in the affirmative (Item 55).

Athletics for girls

Girls, too, have needs which can be achieved through athletic activity. These needs may not be the same as for boys nor should the program of activities be conducted as for boys. The need still exists, and, on the basis of the findings, much improvement is possible.

1. Schools should provide opportunities for all girls to participate according to their interests, abilities, and needs. Only 59 percent of the schools conform to this practice (Item 58).
2. The girls' athletic program should be extended to include dual and individual recreational sports (Item 61).
3. Play days and sports days with other schools are not being utilized to the fullest extent. Only 55 percent of the schools are following this practice (Item 66).
4. Facilities for girls should be provided in accordance with the girls' program. Only 71 percent were conforming (Item 59).
5. Participation in girls' athletics should be based upon status of health which takes into account the organic condition, type of activity, extent of and quality of participation (Item 64). Only 73 percent indicated they were following this procedure.
6. Principals should inform themselves about the recommendations contained in *Standards in Sports for Girls and Women*. Findings indicated that 20 percent were undecided as to whether their practice conformed or not. Sixteen percent indicated that they were undecided (prob-

ably because they did not know what is contained in the publication) (Item 68).

Financing the school program

The financing of athletics has long been a problem in many of the secondary schools. The school boards have usually provided facilities, both indoor and outdoor, as well as personnel. In some states legal limitations have been set which prevent school boards from financing the total expenses of the athletic program. The gate receipts have been one of the main sources of income for providing equipment, travel, and officiating personnel. Some critics have raised the question whether it is necessary to have expensive stadiums and large gymnasiums to bring about the desired educational outcomes. Many educators state that many of the abuses are closely related to the methods of financing athletics and propose that athletics be completely financed from tax dollars, since athletics are, or should be, a part of the education of all children.

1. In approximately one third of the schools the Board of Education does not control the financing of the athletic program and only 76 percent agree with this as an accepted policy (Item 69).
2. Slightly more than two-thirds of the schools maintain a balance in the financing of all phases of the physical education program (Item 72).
3. The intramural sports program is not supported by tax funds in 61 percent of the schools. Ten percent do not agree with this as a policy (Item 75).
4. Only 15 percent of the schools are moving in the direction of complete financing of the athletic program from tax funds and only 54 percent think such financing should be adopted in principle (Item 76).

Community relations

Few phases of the total school program have received more widespread interest

from the general public than interscholastic athletics. Sometimes pressure groups, which either lack information or do not desire to know the proper place of athletics as a part of the education program, seek to force coaches, school administrators, and boards of education into untenable positions with respect to policies and practices of athletics.

It is the duty and responsibility of the school staff to present and to interpret to the community the purposes and scope of this phase of the school program. Citizens also have a responsibility in seeking information about the outcomes that should be sought through sports.

Every medium of communication should be employed by educators, parents, and citizens that they may become familiar with the recommendations of recognized authorities in regard to acceptable goals of education.

1. Sixty-six percent of the schools responding to this question indicated that they were studying the community to determine how to use, to improve, and to increase available space for wholesome play for their students (Item 78).
2. There is much to be done in providing athletic programs for children and youth during vacation periods since there are only 65 percent of the schools which answered this question in the affirmative (Item 79).
3. In 73 percent of the communities organizations look to the school for counsel and advice regarding the athletic program (Item 80).
4. Although schools were almost unanimous in the opinion that boards of education should enjoy as much freedom in the selection of coaches as any other staff member, only 78 percent indicated that this was the current practice (Item 83).
5. During a losing season a coach and his team get community support in only 71 percent of the respondent schools (Item 84).

Reports of Afternoon Conferences Conducted by the Commission on Research and Service, April 11, 1956

FOR FIVE YEARS, perhaps longer, the character of the programs of the three commissions at the annual meeting of the Association has been changing. The shift has been away from formal addresses with no audience participation and toward an increasing array of group discussions and panels on pre-arranged topics and even more informal "buzz sessions." All told, twenty-six convocations of this character were posted in the Program for the Sixty-first Annual Meeting, April 8-13, 1956, at Chicago: eleven for the Commission on Secondary Schools and twelve for the Commission on Research and Service, and three for all three commissions in joint session. Thus far, the Commission on Colleges and Universities has not adopted this feature to a noticeable extent. A total of 123 persons was required to staff these meetings and uncounted numbers attended and participated from the floor.

At 2:30, April 11, the following six topics engaged the attention of the sessions which the Commission on Research and Service had provided.

"What are the possibilities of educational television?"

"What does the White House Conference mean to schools and colleges of the North Central Association?"

"How can we promote individual competence despite bulging enrollments?"

"How are schools and colleges helping students achieve self-understanding?"

"How can education and business cooperate in promoting better international understandings?"

"How does one design and conduct reliable educational studies?"

The recorders' accounts of these discussions are printed herewith. The others will appear in the April number of THE QUARTERLY.

CONFERENCE NO. I

"What are the possibilities of educational television?"

Participants

Chairman: Donald G. Emery, Dean, College of Adult Education. The University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska

Recorder: Lee D. Piggott, Principal, Senior High School, Decatur, Illinois

Consultants: James Robertson, Program Director, WTTW, Chicago, Illinois. Robert L. Fleming, Principal, South High School, Youngstown, Ohio. Leslie E. Brown, Dean, Cleveland College, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. Lawrence E. McKune, Television Producer-Coordinator, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan. Richard B. Hull, Director, WOI-AM-FM-TV, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa

Mr. Emery: "What are the Possibilities of Educational Television?"

The purpose of this section is to orient NCA region high school and college administrators to the use of television as an important and available tool for education. Many administrators have had no real opportunity to know what is provided in a television studio and most schoolmen have not as yet seen an educational telecast originated by school and college personnel for in-school or general public receiving.

By the sixty minutes of telecasting being received during the meeting today we hope to make schoolmen more aware of how the medium might be used. The sample telecasts are intended to encourage these administrators to consider the

use of television more seriously than they have heretofore. The two samples—science at the high school level and geography at the college level—are merely representative of many areas in the curriculum which have been and might be presented in this manner.

The telephone line to the WTTW studio is useful in allowing the school administrators to ask their questions of the program participants during the final fifteen minutes of the telecast.

Regardless of the possible uses of televised education to help meet the instructional problems of steadily increasing school enrollments, the potential of television as a closed circuit system to permit improved instruction or more effective use of master teachers remains to be explored. Only by many schoolmen becoming concerned about the use of television as an educational tool for their student bodies can we find satisfactory uses of the medium in schools.

At the moment, secondary schools have engaged in relatively little use of television. Colleges and universities have acquired some experience both through educational channels and through several commercial channels. The evidence at hand indicates that the level of learning through television is comparable to that of groups with the same instructor in the live situation.

All administrators concerned with present and future school construction need to make decisions about the possibility of both receiving and originating telecasts in various areas of new buildings. Conduit should be provided now in new construction for the probable use of closed circuit television systems in their buildings during the next fifty years.

The technical progress to make television systems financially practical for in-school closed circuit use seems assured. Whether or not television will become an effective tool for learning rests on the imaginative qualities of American school administrators.

Mr. McKune: "The Research Conclusions About Learning via Television"

We are well along now in our considerations of the possibilities of educational television, and perhaps it is important that we review the conclusions of research planned, conducted, and reported about learning via television.

The focus Dean Emery has given the work of our TV committee, the tour of WTTW, the demonstration classes and the answers for your questions, appear to have established a suitable basis upon which to lay the scanty framework of available research conclusions. The term "scanty" applies because in spite of current upsurge in research activity few reports are published and for those available objectives show much duplication.

Charles E. Hoban, Institute of Cooperative Research, University of Pennsylvania, has an article entitled "Research and Reality" in the winter number of *Audio-Visual Communications Review* which emphasizes the great need for user-oriented research, which: (1) specifies and investigates problems important to policy makers, managers, and operators in the applied field, (2) establishes face to face communication with users, and (3) meets the criteria of the user in reporting results.

It is necessary at this point to identify myself as a user. I am not a researcher. I am a user in much the way you will be when you set television to work for you and for your school.

Continuing: Hoban cites the need for "evaluation research" in *filtering* the output of the basic researchers, *translating* it, and *interpreting* it for the user. "Knowledge of results is essential for improvement in terms of our mistakes and successes," Hoban says. "Evaluation research serves precisely this function, making possible the two-way flow of information between the researcher and the user of research results." It seems to me Mr. Hoban's article makes very good sense.

Let's get at the questions for which re-

search has supplied at least partial answers. To aid in this process George Ganung, graduate assistant, who works with me at Michigan State has compiled those studies which deal with TV learning, teaching, and classroom techniques and prepared a report which specifies the source, objectives, procedures, and findings. This we felt would be helpful in further study you will want to make in relation to your own TV development. Mr. Ganung's collection reveals that objectives for the studies present few basic questions. Most early studies sought in one way or another to discover the effectiveness of televised education. Perhaps we should list the questions and support them briefly with research findings.

1. *What is the relative effectiveness of conventional classroom and televised instruction?*

Western Reserve University in 1952 found TV students learned more than students in conventional class.

United States Army, 1953, found TV classes appeared to be more effective but certainly were just as much so.

Iowa State College, 1953; University of Houston, 1954; United States Air Force, 1953; found no significant difference in effectiveness.

United States Army, 1954, reported TV at least as effective for regular groups, more effective for lower aptitude groups.

United States Army, 1954, on short term instruction found TV equal in effectiveness.

Pennsylvania State University, 1955, found that the difference in learning was not statistically significant.

2. *How does conventional classroom instruction compare when used on TV?*

United States Army, 1954, determined it to be as good at least.

Pennsylvania State University, 1955, found no significant difference.

3. *How do methods and procedures compare?*

Michigan State found the TV class better, that it required thorough planning, pre-testing for effectiveness of teaching aids and teachers demonstrated greater personal authority. Time was economically used!

4. *How does TV instruction compare with classroom instruction when used for the same subject matter?*

Penn State found unmodified conventional courses when televised for a full semester on closed-circuit were compared with those not so televised—there was no significant difference.

5. *Should courses be modified for classroom instruction on TV?*

United States Army, 1954, found instruction equally effective when presentation was standardized for both.

6. *How does class on campus and TV class compare in scores?*

Western Reserve University, 1952, found the raw score of television students in Elementary Psychology was 17 points higher than for those taking conventional class.

Iowa State College, 1953, found television class scores in Elementary Psychology were better than those of campus classes.

7. *How effectively do public school teachers use television instruction for their own classes?*

New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair found:

- a. Television can make a valuable contribution to classroom teaching, supplementing the work of the teacher.
- b. TV is most effective when it brings to the classroom experiences, materials, or demonstrations otherwise not readily available.
- c. TV vitalizes subject matter, stimulates student interest and activity, and broadens background.

Iowa State College reported in January, 1955, that over 600 school groups in their viewing area were using their TV school time series to enrich the training of 36,500 students.

8. *What constitutes a good TV teacher?*

New Jersey State Teachers College discovered that the teacher must possess enthusiasm, a knowledge of principles of teaching, and special qualities of voice and manner.

9. *Is direct student-teacher interaction necessary?*

A flat no would perhaps be the best and most useful answer for this question because it appears certain to delay the use of TV for classroom, and in instances of use greatly complicates technical problems. I am convinced this does not deserve primary consideration in setting up closed-circuit TV. Related benefits for a good teacher are much over-shadowed by related difficulties.

10. *How may a teacher use substitutes to overcome the lack of student-teacher reaction?*

New Jersey State Teachers College, 1954, recommended the use of "mind reading" or teachers anticipation of specific questions, student panels, off-camera voices asking questions which students normally ask. Results were satisfactory

11. *Is television a practical aid to instruction?*

New Jersey State Teachers College, 1954, discovered that television can make a valuable contribution to classroom instruction, that it is practical for demonstrations, rare materials, and close scrutiny of objects otherwise not visible in an ordinary class.

12. *How does TV serve technical subjects?*

United States Army, 1953, reported that in-

struction by TV was significantly better than conventional instruction in classroom.

13. *Do kinescope recordings serve for future teaching?*
United States Air Force, 1953, found that both closed-circuit television and kinescope recordings were equally effective at all levels of student ability.

14. *How does TV, kinescope, and classroom compare?*
United States Army, 1954, found that kinescope served instruction as well if not better than live telecast.

United States Army, 1949, reported that both live TV and kinescopes were better than local instructors. Live TV and kinescopes were nearly on par.

15. *Can TV be used effectively and do students remember instruction?*

United States Army, 1954, found TV instruction was remembered at least as well as regular instruction.

United States Naval Academy, 1954, reported scores on retention tests, demonstrating attained learning, were in favor of groups taught by television.

16. *Does TV stay with the student?*

United States Navy, 1950, reported that all grades of officers and men made significant learning gains after receiving TV instruction. Retention tests showed that both officers and enlisted men retained a substantial amount of materials over a period of from three to six weeks.

17. *Can TV be used to teach a variety of subjects in the home?*

American Red Cross-Home Nursing-KUHT indicated that persons with practice and television did no better than those with TV only.

These are the conclusions based upon available research reports. They represent the merest beginnings of the thinking and re-thinking necessary for substantial evaluation. Much impetus has been given recently by grants from various foundations and it seems reasonable to expect fresh reports of research developed with keener insight into basic and related problems of televised education. An example which points in this direction is the United States Army Signal Corp research on Improving Television Instruction as reported in the winter, 1956, issue of *Audio-Visual Communications Review*. Conclusions indicate substantial economies in preparation and teaching time, while the level of learning is increased or remains constant.

It is noteworthy perhaps that the subjective evaluations of television teachers

reflect this kind of improvement in teaching abilities and skills. Let me review these evaluations for you.

1. *Dr. John B. Harrison* in examining his students in TV extension and on campus at the close of the fall term, 1955, made no differentiation between groups. Examinations were administered and graded without identifying individuals or classes. The following conclusion indicates the effectiveness of the televised course:

Students who took the course in "Contemporary History of Europe and Asia," by television on the "University of the Air" ranked higher than any other single class or group in Dr. Harrison's experience.

2. *Interpretation of Dramatic Literature*, by Dr. Moiree Compere

- a. Educational television has an important place in our total educational development which can best be served by the university station.
- b. Requirements of the television medium are different—they must be learned and understood if one is to do effective teaching.
- c. Those who teach must have facility with words. A psychological awareness of the medium's strengths and limitations in the learning process must be understood. Television becomes an arduous task only when teacher and producer fail to understand this fact.
- d. Humanness is significantly revealed whether the teacher intends it or not. Teachers must be cognizant of this. Personality in working with technical people and in projection of ideas in teaching is of paramount importance.
- e. Good teachers are generally good regardless of media. However, television demands greater sustained energy, perceptual vitality, physical aliveness, and lasting integrity.

3. A complete study of the telecourse Learning to Type was made by Professor William Pasewark for his doctoral dissertation. This study will be published soon. Professor Pasewark discovered that:

Students learning to type by television alone were able to write more words with fewer errors than any other group.

The level of learning in point of progress equaled or exceeded levels of learning by earlier regular classroom groups.

I am certain that you and your associates who are responsible for the growth and development of education in your respective communities will not shy away from the challenge television and televised education thrusts upon you. It *can* be used effectively, successfully, and economically as part of our culture, our study, and our work.

We do not know it well, this communication changeling, but we must get to know it, for by no other means are we able to perceive sound, light, mass, and motion at whatever source, envired and vented, every instant so produced. It is a tool we must master and use.

CONFERENCE NO. 2

"What does the White House Conference mean to schools and colleges of the North Central Association?"

Participants

Chairman: J. A. Mason, Superintendent, Niles Township High School, Skokie, Illinois.

Recorder: Ernest Mahan, Dean of Instruction, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas

Consultants: Loy Norrix, Superintendent of Schools, Kalamazoo, Michigan. William Floyd, Superintendent of Schools, West Lafayette, Indiana. Eric Johnson, Director, Illinois Curriculum Program, Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois. Henry Van Tuyle, Farmer, Roadhouse, Illinois

The inter-change of ideas and information by the delegates to the White House Conference has brought about a better understanding of the needs in education. This in turn should result in much more interest and support by lay people and especially by the local communities. The citizens have the primary responsibility for the direction and support of education. The schools will not move far in a program for improvement unless the public they serve approves. Often the people have not been well enough informed. The gulf appears to have been wider between educators and lay people in high schools and colleges than in elementary grade schools. The White House Conference gave occasion for disseminating information and furnished an opportunity for the citizen to say what he thinks. The opinion has been expressed by some people, however, that the farmer from the farm states was inadequately represented.

The majority opinion seems to be in favor of federal aid because the belief is that some states simply do not have the resources to finance education adequately. The control should remain with the local

areas but all levels must share responsibility for financial support. On the other hand, a minority opinion seems to be against federal aid in any form.

Policies and practices in raising tax revenues for support of education came in for much discussion. Out of the White House Conference came an expression of the need for a re-examination of the whole tax structure. The suggestion was made for a change in the allocation of tax funds for various purposes. A re-examination of the legal restrictions on raising finances for school purposes was urged. Another opinion expressed was that a fair and equitable appraisal of the value of property for taxation would make federal aid unnecessary. Here again the feeling of some people was that the layman pays more taxes than the recognition and representation he gets in educational affairs.

The White House Conference resulted in an increased number of people being better informed about curricular matters. No ground swell of dissatisfaction was expressed. Many laymen said the schools are doing well in teaching to think and in instruction in the basic skills. Granted the same opportunity to become informed, lay people come up with about the same answers as professional educators. Throughout the Conference great stress was placed upon the importance of basic skills. Some feeling of disappointment was expressed because of the lack of consideration given to education for making a living.

In dealing with the teacher shortage one recommendation that came out of the White House Conference was for the release of the teacher from many routine duties. Clerks or assistants could perform many of these tasks such as keeping of records, making reports, and even some routine paper grading. Thus the qualified teacher, who has been specially educated to give instruction, could devote more time to this work. The whole problem of securing enough good teachers is one for the lay public as well as the professional

educator. The layman must be involved in the formulation and adoption of educational policies and be encouraged to re-discover our schools and the needs of education.

Mr. Floyd presented the following observations:

1. [The Conference] will bring about greater understanding of needs, problems, and achievements.

a. Because the Conference believed the schools were doing the best job in their history in teaching the basic skills, yet the delegates believed that there should be continuous improvement where desirable and necessary.

That education is a sound and necessary investment in the future well-being of our nation and its citizens. We believe that education is necessary for the fullest development and enrichment of the individual. The continued success of our democratic way of life requires that every individual be afforded that education necessary to enable him to make an intelligent choice and to effect necessary compromises on questions of public policy.

That all children be free to seek the truth wherever it can be found.

That consideration must be given to the continuous growth and development in education at all levels in amount and scope, to keep up with the economic, social, and moral implications resulting from the advances in technology and science.

2. Proper, appropriate, and adequate financial support will be provided for the education of children in America.

a. The people of America need urgently to re-examine the allocation of tax funds at all levels of government. The destiny of our children and our free society demands that we use more of our wealth for education.

The problem of financing our schools, however, is not lack of capacity to support education adequately. The problem is national determination to apply enough of our available resources to the job.

The people of the United States have inherited a commitment, and have the responsibility to provide for all a full opportunity for a free public education regardless of physical, intellectual, social, or emotional differences; or of race, creed, or religion.

The fullest measure of local initiative and control should be maintained, but no level of government (local, state, or national) should be relieved of its appropriate responsibility in fulfilling this commitment. It was the consensus of the 2,000 participants that all of the schools are not adequately organized to accomplish the goals we have agreed upon for education. To adequately accomplish the goals

we have set, the participants feel that a school district should:

(1) Have resources and pupils sufficient to offer efficiently and economically a comprehensive educational program of elementary and secondary education.

(2) Be able to maintain a competent, well-balanced staff of teachers.

(3) Be able to marshal sufficient wealth to finance a school program.

It was the consensus of the 2,000 participants that there is a high correlation between a good educational program and a school district organization which is large enough to provide good educational leadership, skilled teachers, and adequate facilities.

And upon the citizens rests the primary responsibility for good schools.

The state shall provide for its public schools those desirable services over, above, and beyond the capabilities of the local districts to provide the basic program.

Since pupil-teacher ratios are an important factor in achieving educational goals, class size should be large enough to permit an optimum program but small enough to permit attention to the individual needs.

No state was represented that had a demonstrated financial incapacity to build the schools it will need during the next five years.

That there should be legislation to insure that new housing developments shall be required to provide space for school buildings.

Each state has the responsibility to provide for all its children an opportunity for a minimum of twelve years of public education. The organization of administrative units should be such as to eliminate or reduce to a minimum the inefficient and ineffective school districts in both the elementary and the secondary fields, and to provide the most desirable unit for the offering of an adequate educational program for all elementary and secondary pupils.

There should be a re-examination of the legal restrictions on borrowing, the taxing powers for school purposes, leading toward the easing of such restrictions, thus safeguarding the credit of the state and local communities.

Each state should base its taxing power on property through an equalized assessed valuation and on the basis of state-wide, uniform standards, thereby providing a fairer base in terms of ability to pay.

All taxable property should be kept on the tax rolls, and there should be a continuous re-appraisal of property values.

There was a general consensus of the 2,000 participants that state aid should be increased to provide, after a fair local levy, the basic program on an equalized basis. There was a general agreement among the participants that initiative to exceed the basic program should be encouraged.

A re-examination should be made in each state of the constitutional and statutory restrictions on the bonding and the taxing powers of state governments. These should be eased to the extent necessary to provide an adequate program of education. There was some opinion that, if necessary, constitutional restrictions should be removed.

A substantial majority felt that some states do not have sufficient financial resources to take care of the essential needs of the schools.

The participants approved by a ratio of more than 2 to 1 the proposition that the Federal government should increase its financial participation in public education. Of those favoring such increase, the overwhelming majority approved an increase in Federal funds for school building construction.

On the issue of Federal funds to the states for local school operation, the participants divided almost evenly. A very small minority was opposed to Federal aid to education in any form.

A majority of the 2,000 participants agreed that all states and territories and the District of Columbia should be eligible for Federal funds but that Federal funds should be granted only on the basis of demonstrated need. Federal aid should never be permitted to become a deterrent to state and local initiative in education.

The problem of financing our schools, however, is not lack of capacity to support education adequately. The problem is national determination to apply enough of our available resources to do the job.

The people of America need urgently to re-examine the allocation of tax funds at all levels of government.

The destiny of our children and our free society demands that we use more of our wealth for education.

3. That a new position of teacher will be created in America. That the American public must be re-awakened to the fact that teachers work with our most precious resource—our children.

A good educational system requires good teachers, and enough of them in each locality to meet its needs.

That to create this new position for teachers three basic considerations must be kept in mind:

- a. The prestige and status of teaching must be

kept comparable to other professions within the community.

- b. The salary structure must be high enough and flexible enough to compete effectively with other fields bidding for quality manpower.
- c. The teacher's job must be so defined as to challenge and attract the interest of talented people

We (2,000 delegates) believe that the most effective use of teacher talent will require *more* rather than fewer teachers. We recommend release of teachers from non-professional duties and the use of consultants and supervisory services. It is further recommended that there be consolidation of attendance units to provide good age groupings, good buildings, and good school environment.

While recognizing the tremendous shortage of classrooms, we also feel that problems will not be solved until enough classrooms are available to make it possible to reduce the pupil-teacher ratio, which will provide a more ideal teaching situation. And that the present crowded conditions in the school should not be accepted as permanent standards.

A good teacher is one who has an active interest in children and youth; has a broad educational background; is professionally qualified and competent; possesses good physical and mental health; has a good moral character; manifests a desire for self-improvement; can work constructively with other professional workers, parents, and the community; and is proud of teaching as a profession.

The fourth topic is that greater importance will surround the schools of the future. The school must accept responsibility for determining its place in working cooperatively with appropriate community institutions and agencies toward enriching the lives of its students. It must help them apply ethical values which will guide their moral judgments and their conduct, and to develop the recognition that these values stem from, among other sources, their spiritual and religious convictions.

It was the consensus of the 2,000 participants that school buildings can be more effectively used for school and community purposes:

- a. The possible use of buildings for the entire twelve months by children and adults should be explored for educational, civic, and recreational purposes.
- b. Buildings should be open for adult evening classes, recreation, general civic and community purposes, with school purposes having first priority.

Proper supervisory control over use should be exercised so as to cause no interference with good school operation. There should be supervision and budget provision for this extra use.

And, finally, that consideration must be given to the need for continuing growth and development in education at all levels in amount and scope to keep up with the economic, social, and moral implications resulting from the advances in technology and science.

CONFERENCE NO. 3

"How can we promote individual competence despite bulging enrollments?"

Participants

Chairman: Ottis H. Rechard, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming

Recorder: Charles R. Teeter, Superintendent of Schools, Star City, Arkansas

Consultants: Ellsworth P. Woods, Dean, College of Liberal Arts, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa. Neal M. Wherry, Principal, High School, Lawrence, Kansas. William F. Kelley, Dean, Creighton College, The Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska. J. E. Rose, Principal, Abraham Lincoln Junior High School, Rockford, Illinois. W. Francis English, Dean, College of Arts and Science, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

We feel that a partial answer is to be found in using very skillful instructors in large classes. The typical classroom built for 40 students in many cases should be replaced by rooms large enough to accommodate 100 or more students. Colleges and universities will need to train students who are to be teachers in methods and techniques dealing with the instruction of large groups. The best of equipment will be necessary and teacher assistants will need special training. The talents of the superior students can be used to good advantage. With proper supervision they could serve as tutors, librarians, helpers with equipment, giving and grading tests, and many other activities that will be helpful to the students and the teachers. It is felt that many gifted students are overlooked in our program of mass education. Superior students can be located by a state-wide testing program in the senior class, and their names given to the colleges. The colleges in turn could make a special effort to get them enrolled. After the superior students are enrolled it was felt that the instructors should become personally acquainted with them and that a system of rewards and recognitions should be used to increase the holding power of the institution. It was suggested that grouping of students might be helpful if it was done on a broad scale on the secondary

level. For example, the student body might be divided into two groups—those who plan to enter college, and those who plan to enter the world of work immediately upon graduation. Courses of study could be prepared giving special emphasis to the interest of the student, but similar enough to permit a change of mind on the part of the student.

CONFERENCE NO. 4

"How are schools and colleges helping students achieve self-understanding?"

Participants

Chairman: Wendell H. Wilson, Principal, High School, Greeley, Colorado

Recorder: Byron L. Westfall, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana

Consultants: Arthur T. Jersild, Professor of Education, Columbia University, New York City. Delsie Holmquist, Professor, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota. Ray Hickman, Principal, High School, Longmont, Colorado

The chairman stated the main topic was to be discussed and suggested the following sub-topics from the printed program:

- a. What are the best methods for promoting self-understanding and how serious are the pitfalls?
- b. Do teachers, counselors, and administrators recognize the educational significance of self-understanding, for themselves and their students?
- c. What is being done or might be done to help teachers face problems in their own personal and professional lives which arise when they try to help their students to understand themselves?
- d. Can schools and colleges through their educational programs assist the student in making a progressive discovery of his own potentialities?
- e. How can the needs and sources of anxiety of students be identified, and by what means can the schools assist the student to satisfy his needs in socially desirable ways?

Each consultant then made a brief statement after which questions from the floor guided the discussion.

Mr. Hickman explained how in Colorado a council of high school and college representatives is assisting students in achieving better self-understanding, in some areas at least. This group attempts

to facilitate the transition of students from high school to college. One procedure described was to let college students make comments concerning difficulties they may have had as college freshmen and suggest ways in which the high schools might prevent similar difficulties in the future. Representatives of colleges in Colorado go together to the various high schools and in groups counsel high school students concerning college attendance. The colleges and high schools attempt to work together to coordinate activities involving both high schools and colleges and attempt to reduce the number of recruitment activities which may seem unnecessary from the point of view of either the colleges or the high schools.

Mr. Hickman said further that the college testing program and the vocational aptitude testing program of the state employment service had been helpful in enabling pupils to know better what they want to do. He said also that the state high school activities organization probably helped somewhat in this respect although its results are difficult to evaluate as far as this one problem of helping students achieve self-understanding is concerned.

Dr. Holmquist raised the question, "Self-understanding for what?" That is, she said, self-understanding should best be thought of as a means to an end. Neither is this the only purpose of the schools. A good curriculum and good instruction, however, should go a long way toward enabling the pupil to reach self-understanding. Such competent teaching and competent learning in a satisfactory school situation should help the student achieve self-esteem, status, and a desire for more knowledge, all of which should contribute to a better knowledge of himself. One of the outcomes commonly expected of general education is the effective individual, which means, in part, one with self-understanding.

Dr. Jersild urged that teachers try through the entire curriculum to help students develop healthy attitudes and

understandings. Individual teachers often have great interest in such attempts, although in this connection many schools as a whole have almost surrendered to psychiatrists and other specialists. He pointed out that many students live in a world very different from the academic one in which most teachers have been reared. To help such students, teachers must have emotional understanding. Not brilliance, but compassion is often most important. Teachers who try to help pupils with emotional problems, however, frequently become discouraged, depressed, or otherwise emotionally involved themselves, with the result that they decide to stick to the academic side of teaching. Growth on the part of the student must be emphasized, however, rather than discipline on the part of the school. A major problem is how to help teachers develop more skill in dealing with students in ways which will promote their emotional growth and will release the potential forces which reside within each human personality.

The first question from the floor dealt with what is being done or what could be done to help teachers learn how they can more effectively help students understand themselves. In answer to this question the following suggestions were made:

- a. In the teacher-training institutions there is heavy emphasis on the study of growth and development of people.
- b. Teachers are being taught that there are certain needs common to all people, as for example, "belonging." (School organizations and activities can provide opportunities to help pupils in this respect. Also the schools can provide opportunities for most pupils to have as many successes as failures.)
- c. More institutions than formerly are offering courses in the psychology of personal adjustment.
- d. Many teachers in training make studies of particular children, not necessarily just the emotionally disturbed ones.

One difficult problem is how to get the interest and cooperation of otherwise excellent teachers already in service who have not had specific training in helping

pupils understand themselves better and how resist the whole idea.

Another question from the floor concerned what to do to keep high school seniors from forming poor study and work habits when in many schools the senior year seems easier academically and fuller socially than previous years. Several but not all the schools represented seemed to have this problem. Suggestions included the following:

- a. Improve the counseling programs so that students will choose courses during the senior year that challenge them.
- b. Help students learn to recognize values more adequately.
- c. Recognize that some students have learned to study well enough by the senior year that less study time is needed to do the same amount and quality of work than was required earlier.
- d. Recognize that some athletic and social activities may be for some pupils as important in promoting well rounded growth as is the academic work.

Mr. Markley summarized the discussion briefly. He pointed out that one of the most important responsibilities of the schools is to help pupils achieve maturity by learning to understand better their own needs, shortcomings, and potentialities. Teachers and other educational workers recognize that self-understanding is essential both for themselves and their students. Teacher education institutions are increasing their emphasis on helping prospective teachers learn to assist pupils in understanding themselves better. Although the problem is a difficult one, some progress is being made and prospects seem encouraging.

CONFERENCE NO. 5

"How can education and business cooperate in promoting better international understandings?"

Participants

Chairman: Clarence Stegmeir, Head of Social Studies Department, Thornton Township High School and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois

Recorder: Laurence V. Britt, S.J., Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois

Consultants: Fred Gillies, President, Acme Steel

Company, Riverdale, Illinois. Fitzhugh Granger, Manager of Merchandise Services, Foreign Operations, International Harvester Company, Chicago, Illinois. O. A. Jackson, Vice President, Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Company, Chicago, Illinois

Mr. Stegmeir, in introducing the panelists, called attention to the fact that new and improved methods of communication and transportation, increased productivity of American industry, and expanded markets has resulted in recent years in the more widespread diffusion of not merely American merchandise, but also American ideas and ideals. As American industry and commerce continue to expand, America's impact on the entire world will become more and more significant, and education, if it is to fulfill its responsibility, must cooperate with industry to make certain that America's influence will be an influence for good.

Mr. Jackson, the panelist representing banking and other service organizations, and a man with considerable experience in various foreign countries, noted the fact that the midwest area served by the North Central Association—roughly the area extending from Canada to the Gulf and from Cleveland to Omaha—currently handles almost half of the nation's export and commerce. Some two million people in this area are already identified, either directly or indirectly, with import-export trade, and completion of the water route to the sea will substantially increase the volume of trade in the Midwest and the number of people involved in it.

In emphasizing the magnitude of the midwest's participation in world commerce, Mr. Jackson noted that, of all the peoples of the world with whom we come in contact via the commercial routes, only about four hundred million can be assumed to share to some degree our own democratic philosophy of life. If due allowances are made for those already committed, willingly or otherwise, to various forms of collectivism, approximately one billion may be considered to be politically and socially on the fence, capable of being

drawn toward the democratic world or driven away from it. This potential, Mr. Jackson felt, more than justified our vast expenditures abroad, on the theory that a helping hand and quality merchandise, backed up with sound American ideas and ideals, could do much to win converts to the democratic way of life.

Educators, Mr. Jackson insisted, could contribute much by cooperating with industry and commerce in helping to acquaint students with the challenge ahead, the opportunities available for real service, and the need for competent graduates willing to devote themselves to the international problems of tomorrow. Even in the early grades, but more especially in secondary school and at the college level, teachers should take advantage of the many opportunities in their own communities to acquaint students with the many organizations engaged in daily commerce with other nations of the world.

The second panelist, Mr. Fred Gillies, discussed business' promotion of free, competitive world trade, pointing out that, despite the fears of some, the needs of the world, entirely apart from its potential wants, are currently extensive enough to guarantee adequate markets for all. He indicated that industry and commerce were becoming increasingly aware of the need to assist the people of other countries to develop more fully their own industrial and commercial resources, with a view to improving their economies and, in the long run, expanding the world's markets. Educators might assist by helping their students to evaluate more fairly the tremendous potential of foreign peoples and to appreciate the long range benefits to be derived from free, competitive trade, or trade, at least, in which export-import tariffs would be minimal and fairly equalized.

The final speaker, Mr. Fitzhugh Granger, who had spent more than eighteen years in various foreign countries, some seven of which were with the Department of State, reviewed the contribution which American industry and commerce have

been making to better international understanding. He noted that many American firms had been conducting intensive public relations campaigns abroad, spending substantial sums of money on such things as publications, films, lecture courses, training schools, scholarships, arrangement of tours for foreign specialists, etc. Our American traders, Mr. Granger was convinced, are generally well aware of the fact that they must be concerned with much more than mere commerce. They must, first of all, export and exemplify the spirit of free enterprise and democracy, demonstrating by deeds the fact that no other system can succeed in doing the world's job.

Mr. Granger felt that education and business might cooperate more effectively in promoting international understanding in a variety of ways, among which he enumerated the following: by making more intensive efforts to understand all of the elements that make for better understanding; by becoming increasingly aware of the country's impact, actual and potential, on the rest of the world; by industry's more generous provision of speakers, visual aids, etc. to our schools, to acquaint students with the many ramifications of business and commerce; by establishing better training programs, to prepare both American and foreign students to be ambassadors of good will in industry and commerce; by broadening our scholarship and exchange student programs; by making American books and teaching aids available to foreign students; by providing for more effective tours for foreign visitors in this country; by supplementing theory courses in business and commerce, particularly at the secondary and college levels, with actual visitations to business and commercial centers in the various communities. Mr. Granger emphasized the fact that business was actually eager to cooperate with education in helping to develop students who would be capable of exercising more effective leadership in both commerce and industry.

The open discussion which followed presentation of the prepared addresses indicated considerable interest in ideas that had been suggested by the various speakers and stressed the importance of America's exporting only the best of its products and ideas. It seemed generally agreed that both education and business might profit from closer cooperation in attempting to prepare future citizens and future world traders for the role history has destined them to play in world commerce and in the family of nations, with the inevitable effect this will have on the lives and ideas and ideals of so many people of the world.

The observations delivered to the conference by Messrs. Gillies, Granger, and Jackson are printed below.

MR. JACKSON

Your group meeting today is concerning itself with the all important subject of "International Understanding" and the specific question being considered by Mr. Stegmeir's panel is "How Can Education and Business Cooperate in Promoting Better International Understanding." It becomes my privilege to initiate our panel discussion, and in doing so, I have been asked to develop an approach from the standpoint of the significance of our vast midwestern area, an area incidentally with which you are closely familiar but about which I may possibly add a few facts that you may conceivably have overlooked. For purposes of our discussion today, we will regard the midwest area of our country as that which comprises the area between Colorado on the west, Ohio on the East, the Canadian border to the north and the Gulf to the south. Now within this area, it has been estimated that over 2,000,000 persons are gainfully employed in activities that are identified directly or indirectly with export or import activities. Moreover, it has also been estimated that between 45 and 50% of the total volume of our nation's foreign trade is midwestern. This becomes sig-

nificant when we realize that the total volume of our nation's exports, imports, goods, and services during 1955 aggregated a total in excess of forty billion dollars. Another interesting factor to keep in mind is that within this nineteen mid-west states area, there is said to be a population in excess of 50,000,000 persons. Furthermore, within the next few years with the completion of the St. Lawrence seaway project and the development of the inland waterways reaching into the Missouri, Mississippi, and Ohio Valley regions, this midwestern area of ours is destined to enjoy even greater significance not only in our national economy but also in our international affairs. It has been said that the greatest influence towards an assurance of international understanding and world peace is the successful maintenance and development of our two-way street in world trade. This, of course, should be a continuing exchange of quality products at a fair price. The cheaper cost of transportation to and from overseas markets that will result from the St. Lawrence seaway and sag canal projects will enable an ever increasing number of people and especially those located in our midwest area to import a large variety of items from overseas. If you were to stand on the sidelines, so to speak, and watch the two-way trade routes, you would probably observe that from this vast midwestern area large quantities of merchandise move forward in export to the four corners of the world—foodstuffs, utility items and a wide variety of machinery and equipment. Within this latter category, you will find road building equipment, mining machinery, locomotives, agricultural equipment and a diversified line of machine tools. Now on the other side of the international thoroughfare, you will find an equally imposing variety of imports from South America, Europe, the Near East, Africa, and the Far East as well as from other points in the Western Hemisphere. Apart from the strategic raw materials and the large quantities of coffee

and cocoa which enter our country you also observe linens, textiles and specialty fabrics, perfumes, wines, food delicacies, fruits, nuts, spices, precious woods, wax for polishing, jute, hemp, ornaments, glassware, laces, toys, scientific instruments, sports automobiles, bicycles, sewing machines, woolens and a wide selection of specialty machinery. You will appreciate that these items are mentioned at random and the list for both exports and imports is by no means complete. You will appreciate that the money which we pay to the overseas sources for the items which we import enable these countries to pay for the merchandise which we sell to them.

Many of you will probably be surprised and yet you should not be when you hear that following two world wars, there had developed within our midwest area, a complete expedient and low cost network of service specialists who are indispensable to the importing interests and also to the export manufacturers or agencies engaged in this type of activity. By service specialists, I mean firms engaged in the business of transportation either by truck, rail, waterway, or air, freight handling and routing specialists sometimes described as freight forwarders, insurance agents and banks to complement the availability and it can be said, adequacy of these service facilities in Chicago. We find that consulate officers of all friendly nations of the world are found here, and last but not least, a most efficient and well informed office of the United States Department of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Indeed the midwest has developed during the past two decades to a point of self-containment where exporters and importers no longer find it necessary to look to the key seaboard cities of our country for guidance or service; these are found to be available at close range and the trend in this direction is noticeably increasing.

Now all of my remarks, so far, have been intended to develop an appreciation on your part of the importance and

far reaching significance of export-import trade, the significant impact upon the vast midwest area of our country and the link which this forms with the outside world. We are asked to indicate what industry can do to help schools and colleges develop better international understanding. The speakers to follow are manufacturers in industry and they will considerably enlarge upon the concept which I have endeavored to portray and I know they have a most inspiring message for you. As a banker however, I must speak as one who serves industry and I should add that this is our happy privilege. Amongst the more important services which bankers perform in connection with export-import activity are the setting up of arrangements whereby funds are paid overseas through reliable channels and subject to conditions prescribed by the remitter—funds are collected from the importers abroad and paid promptly to the U. S. exporter—special credit reports are obtained through reliable banking channels overseas on firms with whom our local customers are considering doing business—reliable distributors or agents are found overseas to represent U. S. manufacturers in these markets, firms in the United States who wish to import from sources abroad can ascertain through banks if the firm overseas may be relied upon to perform reliably. It would be seen then that banks active in foreign trade service in a sense ensure trading between customers of high and reputable caliber; they also exert an influence for high caliber performance and ethical business practices.

If, then, you can recognize the significance of the services we perform and the influence which our constant communications with friendly and similar service entities overseas and you visualize quality products being exchanged between responsible and reputable people, then perhaps, the banker representing the service interests of industry will have, in a sense, answered your question.

It is after all for you who are gifted

with the talent of being able to impart to others the ability to analyze and simplify, to formulate and rationalize, to moderate or intensify and above all, to inculcate the psychological approach where this becomes necessary.

Yes indeed, it is to you that has been given the privileged responsibility to mold and fashion the human talents of youth so that our men and women of tomorrow will be more likely to have a perspective worthy of the traditions of our country and consistent with the highest ideals for international understanding.

We, then, as amongst those who serve industry, will no doubt wish to make available to you such information as you may seek on our respective services. This may assist you in formulating a program for use in schools which could be supplemented by talks or open forums at your schools in which the students might participate. There could also be trips to banks, freight forwarding houses, transportation offices or insurance agencies, and in each case, the attempt should be made to identify the respective service with the all inclusive two-way thoroughfare in trade and its contribution to international understanding. However, the men who are actively engaged in the manufacture of the parts which we ship overseas have the real contribution to make and I am sure that after you hear their message you will be in a better position to formulate a program which I am certain will in turn constitute the real contribution towards international understanding. Permit me to thank you for your kind indulgence.

MR. GILLIES

The persons who assembled this panel of four experts in world trade, plus one very non-expert person—myself—were kind enough to give me the topic, "Business Promotes Free Competitive World Trade." I say "kind" because I think that this is a subject that most businessmen have some very definitive ideas on whether or not they themselves are directly engaged in overseas trading.

Let's start off by talking for a few moments about the words "free competitive world trade." Free trade, I assume, means the ability of one nation to trade with another without the restriction of import or export tariffs, or at least with these tariffs equalized down to nominal amounts. Such trade would not necessarily have to be competitive. Competitive world trade, or domestic trade for that matter, means to me the thought of presenting to your customer products equal to those offered elsewhere in every respect: quality, utility, timeliness, and price. Competitive trade would not necessarily have to be free, since it is entirely possible that due to conditions at the point of manufacture, one might be able to be competitive in an overseas operation even though substantially high import tariff barriers may have been erected. For example, witness the success of the Japanese in invading the American market both prior to World War II and again in recent years.

Having thus somewhat shattered the title of this particular part of the panel, let me continue by saying that I personally believe very much in the desirability and even necessity of the various peoples of the world trading with each other freely and to the maximum extent possible. I do not mean, of course, that I like to have to compete with the products of some other companies who are exporting under a subsidy from their own governments which are in turn perhaps subsidized by the U.S. Government and, therefore, by me. This is another story, and we shall not deal with that today.

It should be quite apparent that the over-all needs of the peoples of the world are virtually limitless. If we add to their needs the additional quantity represented by their wants, that is to say, those things over and above their essential requirements, we have a potential market that would indeed stagger the imagination. It is quite obvious that except in a relatively small portion of the world even these basic needs are not now being met. If

both the basic needs of the great majority of the peoples of the world plus some of their yet-to-be-developed wants could be met, there would be no question of ruinous competition between manufacturing countries. If these things were accomplished, we simply could not manufacture enough neither now nor at any time in the foreseeable future.

If there is any question about these last statements, we have only to examine the manufacturing history of our own country, where year by year we employ more and more people and turn out more and more goods per capita simply because after we have met our basic needs, we continue to generate more and more wants for things which even a few years ago were unheard of. Basically, what I am saying is that there should be no worry about adequate world markets, both for the United States and for other manufacturing countries, providing that we can supply some of the ingredients of a two-way trading proposition so that other peoples may trade their goods for ours. I am sure that some of the other gentlemen on this panel will deal at length with that subject and I shall not go into it at this point.

I believe that there is one point I should like to make perfectly clear in these few minutes today and that one point I would respectfully recommend your passing on to your students. This point is that we should learn to view with respect and admiration the scientific, engineering, and manufacturing capabilities of our overseas brethren. For all too long there has been a tendency on the part of Americans to view with a certain amount of not too well concealed contempt the productive capabilities of anybody except those of the United States. We have been inclined to feel that in any field we can do it better, cheaper, faster, and ten times as much as anybody else. This was never exactly true, and it is becoming less true each day. First of all, I think it has been recognized for a good many years that in terms of ultimate craftsmanship a

great many things were done better overseas than we do them in this country. You can pick plenty of your own examples, but to name just a few, compare the quality and workmanship of a Rolls-Royce or a Bentley with the best cars manufactured in this country. While you may like our styling better, when it comes to quality of workmanship we are simply not in the same class. Compare the cameras and other optical equipment made by such well-known German manufacturers as Zeiss and E. Leitz with comparably priced items made in this country. Look at the quality built into a Belgian shotgun or the delicate and carefully preserved aromas associated with the French perfume. Like it or not, the quality is there, and we recognize it by buying these products in spite of the high prices which result from the high protective import duties that we have placed on these products. In the field of engineering there have been many innovations, particularly in the European countries, which have been eagerly copied by U.S. manufacturers. In my own industry for example, the steel industry, a virtual revolution in steel-making is promised by a new process developed in Austria during the war and developed there shortly after the war which is now only being copied in this country. This process may in a few years provide a substantial degree of obsolescence for many of our now existing steel-making facilities. In terms of mass production, our overseas friends have perhaps not progressed as far as we have, but they are learning rapidly. In Germany, for example, the Volkswagen is being produced on manufacturing principles laid down years ago by Henry Ford and long since forgotten by our own automobile people in Detroit. They make one model and make the same one from year to year and do not burden themselves with the tremendous cost of yearly model changes. As a result, their production is doubling nearly every year and they are doing a larger export business than anybody else in the world.

In all of these things I am in no way criticizing the American method of doing things or the product of American industry. On the contrary, what I am doing is to emphasize things to you that I am sure you already know; namely, that while we have been doing a great many wonderful things in this country, other countries all over the world have been doing wonderful things too, and we should not close our eyes to their accomplishments. We have a great deal to learn from their way of doing things and a great deal of benefit to gain from the use of some of the things they make. Competition for world markets is intense, and those of us who are in it, even to the limited extent of my own company, are very much aware of the fact that many manufacturers from other countries are playing the game hard, and they have the chips and the experience to play the game properly.

What of the future? Competition will get tougher, not easier. We in the free world have scarcely begun to feel the effect of Russian activities in the free world market. I believe the day is not far off when the Russians will compete well and perhaps effectively for their share of the markets in the free countries of the world. We have not been allowed to see much of Russian industrial development, but the few reports that filter out indicate that Russian industrial accomplishments are great. Their achievements and development of manufacturing capabilities are equal in quality, if not in size, to our own.

What is the answer to these problems? I believe the answer is to recognize our industrial friends in other parts of the world for what they are: aggressive, ambitious, and capable. With increasingly better communications and more and more rapid transportation, the day may not be far off when competing in the world market will not be too much different from domestic competition on which we have long prided ourselves. If real free competition in world trade does come to pass, it can eventually mean nothing but good for the peoples of the world, for I

genuinely believe that many of the political and ideological problems which now separate the peoples of the world and keep governments on the edge of war with one another would be modified or solved could genuine, free international trade relationships be established on a world-wide basis.

MR. GRANGER

In making preparations for this meeting today, which is concerned with how education and business can cooperate in promoting better international understanding, your panel felt that it was obvious that the majority of business interests in a position to offer cooperation would be found among American foreign traders. Beginning with this premise, it then seemed desirable to us first to discuss international understanding and its significance to our vast Midwestern area from industry's standpoint; this has been very ably covered by our first speaker. Next it seemed necessary to point out how American foreign traders promote free competitive world business, and this phase has just been reviewed. The field assigned to me in this over-all presentation is "What is business' attitude today toward the development of better international understanding, and what has it been doing about it?" We feel and hope that the foundation provided by the information in these three brief statements will provide material for a lively discussion of the entire topic.

At present, there are innumerable official and semi-official programs designed to improve international understanding which are being carried on abroad by U. S. interests. With all of the information now being disseminated on the hopes, aspirations, and accomplishments of these many projects, we sometimes overlook the tremendous importance at home and abroad of our American foreign trade which is being carried on unostentatiously, without flourish or fanfare, and has been one of our best and most effective ambassadors at large for over a hundred and fifty years.

In this very disturbed world of today, a great deal, far beyond the concept of most of us, depends on how our foreign traders face the present world-wide business, economic, and political issues. I am happy to say that generally speaking they are approaching them boldly and analytically, with characteristic initiative, aggressiveness, and ingenuity. This not only is enabling us to hold and improve our high level of accomplishment in all phases of our foreign trade activities, but also is making very valuable contributions to improved international relations and understanding.

As patriotic American citizens basically interested in the survival of our way of life, our foreign traders are well aware of the fact our overseas business is not completely commercial in all of its aspects. For years they have appreciated that their duty to society is not discharged alone by the profitable operation of useful business abroad. They have realized that they themselves, being closest to, and therefore knowing more about, our American system, have a deep responsibility to explain and demonstrate its workings to the citizens of other nations.

Harvester's president, John L. McCaffrey, has often said that America must export free enterprise—and that is what our foreign trade exemplifies. The private enterprise system and the private enterprise idea, set free among the nations of the world, can do the world's job. They can do it on a scale and with success that has never remotely been approached in the past. Private enterprise is the only system that has ever done the job. The farther we drift from it or allow others to drift away from its basic principles, the poorer the job becomes and the more people live in want. Collectivism in all of its forms has never produced more than two products, and it has always produced those two; i.e., on the economic side, scarcity, and on the political side, slavery. Private enterprise alone has been able to produce abundant goods and human freedom. This philosophy and practice is our most important commodity which our

business ambassador, American foreign trade, has demonstrated abroad.

Ever since we became a nation, American overseas business has been following sound, considerate, and humane national practices, although the process may not have had such high "falluting" names as "bold new programs," "international public relations," or "Point IV Planning." These activities have in reality been a mixture of just plain horse sense, good business judgment, benevolent or compassionate impulse, or basically altruistic aims, many of which admittedly, but without any apology, may have had some ultimate profit motives.

Our commercial history is full of incidents where our merchant marine or American industry abroad has put its shoulder to the wheel to prevent famine, to relieve epidemics, and to aid in local progress and development. Our American foreign business has been actively implementing the basic ideas of the so-called "Point IV Program" for decades and will certainly continue to do so.

Our total foreign investments amount to many billions of dollars, and they are being increased very appreciably each year. Naturally business has been profoundly interested in *any* programs which would tend to protect or to improve the atmosphere of those investments so that they might develop healthily. On the human relations side, during the past two or three decades especially, our foreign traders have come to an increasing appreciation of their responsibilities as Americans to know better the peoples of the world's nations and to facilitate their knowing us, our American way of life, and our democratic ideals.

Of course, it is true that these concerns want to sell their goods in the most favorable business climates, *but* they also want to get themselves and America better understood. As one of my advertising colleagues put it some time ago, they want to become known as something more than "hard headed Yankee traders looking for a quick profit." This is certainly most expedient today for business as well as

for our United States since interests unfriendly to us are constantly striving to deprecate us, to misrepresent our aims, and to make us appear as heartless, moneygrabbers, capitalistic gangsters.

Now some of you may be thinking "Well, this sounds very fine, but exactly how is this approached by our foreign business, and what about a few concrete instances about what is actually being done at the present time?"

Well, many large concerns have been conducting extensive international public relations activities for years, including continuous research work into local foreign attitudes towards them, towards their products, and towards the United States and everything for which we stand. Detailed programs are being carried on to correct erroneous impressions and to present the truth. All of our overseas industries naturally want to be considered as constructive forces in the local scene, contributing to the progress and development of each foreign nation and to the welfare of its people.

These firms put out international publications in many languages which literally encircle the globe. These include house organs, personnel and client magazines, and vocational and training publications on innumerable subjects from the growing of upland dry rice to the specific treatment of certain diseases, and from dressmaking to the making of concrete block homes and other installations.

Many concerns are operating extensive 16 mm. motion picture programs showing films of their products and their applications, of their facilities, plants at home and abroad, of life in the United States, educational subjects, etc. By means of strip film lecture material and special courses, they conduct extensive American planned training schools on all kinds of important subjects. They offer scholarships in local and United States universities to promising local employes as well as to many selected nationals in those countries. In addition, they offer specialized industrial and vocational training locally and in the United States.

On top of this, they naturally cooperate to the fullest extent possible with pro-American programs which may be sponsored locally by official or semi-official organizations.

Practically every group and entity, at every cultural level, whether in government, industry, education, religion, or labor, that is in any way interested in the improvement of international understanding has agreed that the most advantageous programs are those that involve the exchange of persons and, through them, of ideas; in other words, U. S. scholarships, training programs, and scheduled tours of businessmen and industrialists in the United States with ample opportunity to study us and our American ideals have been found by far the most advantageous activities. Hundreds of overseas students and visitors have inspected or worked in modern American industrial concerns, and have studied our production techniques and our scientific procedures; they have delved into our organization structures, our personnel management and industrial relations, as well as our American cultural and educational facilities, religious institutions, etc., and they have returned to their native lands with a deep appreciation, understanding, and respect for the American way of life.

It is a fact that people acquire understanding as much by human contact as they do by mental exercise. The more that sectors of business and education at home and abroad lead the way in exposing overseas visitors, students, businessmen and industrialists to our American heritage, our free and democratic ways, the more we shall hear what a foreigner recently said about us as quoted in the *Journal of Commerce*. "I think that I found the key to American prosperity. It seems to me to be a fact that nobody is afraid of any kind of work. There is no reflection about work . . . but *action* . . . and this is remarkable. In addition, I experienced democracy not as a political factor so much, but as a fact of life."

Although it is implied in some of the statements I have just made, I do want to

bring out the fact that at practically every cultural and business level we have been actively engaged in making our know-how available to foreign nations and people in a sincere effort to raise their standard of living and to help them toward further progress and development. In some instances, American individuals or groups have actually gone abroad to assist in educating and training people in our methods. In other cases, teams have been sent to the United States for similar purposes, to penetrate and absorb the benefits of our way of doing things, our industrial methods, etc. We can be justly proud of the tremendous extent to which we have made our knowledge and procedures available to the other nations of the world for their advancement.

There are many agencies in our government which are now operating programs designed to improve international understanding. Probably the most directly concerned with this today is the International Cooperation Administration which has abundant funds and personnel available for a very wide variety of projects, and the U. S. Information Agency which operates almost exclusively in the information and cultural fields, effectively advertising America and creating desirable, favorable impressions abroad about our country. American business and educational institutions have been cooperating very closely with all government entities working on these programs but especially with these two agencies. Recently the Business Council for International Understanding has been organized to provide improved industrial cooperation with the government programming in this important field. The new council includes representatives of practically every major industry in the United States and is expected to develop a high level of coordination in government and industry efforts.

This then completes my brief observations on a few of the things that business is doing today to improve international understanding; and please note that edu-

cation is cooperating in many of the projects.

As to further concrete suggestions on how business and education can cooperate more fully in promoting better international understanding, the following may be worthy of consideration:

1. In view of the important contributions made by industry to international understanding, I believe that a greater appreciation of the importance of all aspects of foreign trade, commercial, institutional, and political, should be taught more fully through educational facilities.
2. In view of the great importance of foreign trade to the great Midwestern area of our country, it seems to me that a full appreciation of this should be taught through educational facilities in this area.
3. Business could be of material assistance in executing the previous two suggestions. Many text books available today do not cover this adequately, but business has an abundance of available publications, of motion picture films, strip films and colored slides, and also a considerable number of speakers on a wide variety of foreign trade and overseas subjects.
4. Business and education are already cooperating closely in innumerable training programs at home and abroad, but possibly this activity could be extended.
5. At the instigation of our government, many industries are sending U. S. magazines and books abroad. Educational institutions—and students—might consider taking part in this program either directly or through government or industrial organizations.
6. There is a constant flow of visitors from abroad, some coming directly to industry and some to educational institutions. Possibly some procedure could be developed through the cooperation of business and education for improved handling of these visitors with resultant better international understanding.
7. Many colleges and universities today offer courses in foreign trade. It's a great advantage to the students to study and inspect export-import business operations at first hand in order to balance this experience with their academic training. Some schools have developed visitation programs for this purpose which are very effective, but doubtless much more could be done in this area.

In closing, let me assure you, as educators, that you will always find the fullest cooperation in international business and industry in any effort to improve international understanding.

CONFERENCE NO. 6

"How does one design and conduct reliable educational studies?"

Participants

Chairman: Paul L. Dressel, Head, Board of Examiners, Michigan State University, East Lansing

Recorder: Vaud A. Travis, Professor of Education, Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma

Consultants: Warren G. Findley, Director, Evaluation and Advisory Service, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Joseph Jackson, Director, Department of Testing and Research, Dearborn Public Schools, Dearborn, Michigan. John E. Stecklein, Director, Bureau of Institutional Research, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

The discussion was started by the first speaker pointing out that the purpose of any educational study is to present types that will bear fruit when carried out. This will involve action. Therefore, the first problem in setting up educational studies is to identify actionable studies. Some clues that will help in such identification were given in the form of questions.

Some typical questions suggested were:

1. In what areas has it been possible to create interest?
2. Concerning what things have people been asking questions?
3. What studies would stimulate action?
4. How manageable is the problem?
5. Are the findings worth the effort required?
6. Would the results be usable directly?
7. How should the job be done?

As an example of an actionable study it was suggested that a local high school or college could set up a "Guidance and Follow-up Study" that would take as their problem "Identifying and Guiding of Superior Talent." In getting participants involved in this study it can be pointed out that able students are needed in greater numbers for most professions and that many able students do not take the required training to be of optimum use. Examples of able students in the local community that have failed to continue their education and training can be used. Such examples will lead to a discussion and search for the reasons of such drop-outs that may lead to improvement of the

curriculum, teaching methods, and the general guidance program.

A second speaker rephrased the statement to read "How do we design and conduct a *useful* and reliable educational study?" He selected the three words *useful*, *design*, and *reliability* to construct a framework of operation. Then he selected a major curriculum issue in social studies to illustrate how this framework of operation may be used.

In defining the term "useful" as used here it was emphasized that it meant practical or tangible as opposed to theoretical. The problem must be a practical one that is tangible enough that it can be dealt with in an objective manner. From the standpoint of the teacher it must be one that teachers will accept, participate in its solution, and accept the results. From the standpoint of setting it should be a local situation, preferably where need can be spelled out in terms of behavior change, environmental conditions, such as local economic structure, pupil traits, course sequences, etc. In terms of application there must be recognition of need to interpret findings and translate them into curriculum action.

Design implies measuring the outcomes as to specific behavior or curricular goals challenged. Types of evaluation techniques suggested were recordings, committee assignments, etc. In determining outcomes teachers and pupils should play an important role. *Reliability* is co-terminous with design in that a recognition of behavior changes or outcomes must be inherent in the problem; the development and acceptance of evaluation techniques should be consistent with the behavior or outcomes challenged; and the curriculum content is identified and interpreted consistently with the problem attack.

To illustrate the use of this framework the speaker took a curriculum problem concerned with developing specific behavioral changes inherent in Area A, grade 10 Social Studies in the Dearborn, Michigan, public schools. The prob-

lem was stated as "The Effectiveness of Resource Units A-II and A-III in attaining the Behavioral Changes Implied in the Study of Primitive Cultures."

The behaviorial impact desired in the units consisted of the development of concepts as follows: Every individual is born with basic drives that he attempts to satisfy within the framework of his culture; the interaction of individuals and groups leads to the development of social institutions; social institutions tend to resist change made necessary by technological advances; and there is a constant interaction between man and his physical and cultural environment.

Values sought were respect for the dignity and worth of the individual and groups for the improvement of mankind; appreciation of the contributions of individuals and groups for the improvement of mankind; appreciation of the democratic way of life, with its rights and responsibilities and appreciation for the contributions of other cultures.

The objectives of certain focal problems within areas II and III included the acquisition of knowledge about social controls, means of passing on culture, means of making a living, designated people who have authority, religious beliefs and expressions which account for the unexplainable, values common to the group, means of protecting the family, division of labor, and institutionalized customs.

At the conclusion of the semester objective evidence was obtained through the following methods: The retest through the attitudes scale developed about the values of the course; an objective test about the culture of Tikopia; a fictitious portrayal of a tribe indicating status, symbolism inheritance and practices of a primitive people; an objective test of factual content; and a study of neutral problems involved about critical thinking as formulation of problem, making of assumptions, the structuring of a hypothesis, evaluation, etc.

Post-experimental follow-up consisted of the need for revision and extension of the attitudes scale with somewhat better

agreement among teachers of the content; checking the discriminatory purposes of the test of factual content with intent of improving individual items; consideration of need for an additional form of test to parallel that of Tikopia, and the recognition for content of Grade 10A to assume a higher level because of the better understanding of our own culture.

A third speaker stressed the importance of distinguishing between experimental and informational research. It was pointed out that while each type had common elements the data with which they dealt was sufficiently different to make necessary different techniques and procedures.

In discussing the essentials for reliable educational research it was emphasized that there is need for full cooperation, participation, and interest in the study. All the people affected by the study must be involved as much as possible. Adequate controls must be established. The validity of the measuring instruments must be established. The type of measuring instrument, likewise, varies with the type of study. Some questions raised by the audience were:

1. How ready do you find college and secondary faculties for carrying on studies?
2. How do you measure attitudes in a general education program?
3. How do you interpret data of findings?
4. How would you set up a program to measure the results of a lecture program versus a reading program of instruction?
5. How do you justify releasing classroom time for research?
6. How do you sell research to the communities?

Some generalizations reached were:

1. That the greater the extent of staff interest and participation, the greater the acceptance of results of a study
2. That the extent to which questions are answerable depends upon the extent of clear identification of and agreement on objectives, and the development of perfected instruments to measure these objectives
3. That the extent to which results will be used is directly related to the extent of general interest in the problem being studied
4. That there is a direct relationship between the extent the study is clear-cut and indisputable and the extent that action will be encouraged.

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 7. The Workshop as an In-Service Education Procedure (single copies 25¢; quantities of 10 or more 15¢ each).
 8. Improvement of Reading in Colleges and Secondary Schools.
 - C. *Syllabus—Functional Health Training*, by LYNDIA M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company, Chicago.
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools, distributed free to members of the Commission and member schools.
 - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
 - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
- IV. Publications available from the Office of the Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities, North Central Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.
 - A. *Revised Manual of Accrediting*. \$2.00 (unbound)
 - B. Reprints from the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and other pamphlets available in limited numbers, free of charge.
 1. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities.
 2. National list of institutions of higher education accredited by the six regional accrediting agencies, published by the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies of the United States.
 3. "Principles of Freedom in Teaching and Research," an extract from *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. II. *The Faculty*.
 4. "Know Your North Central Association," 1955.
 5. "Faculty Inquiry into Intercollegiate Athletics," 1953 (A guide to a self-evaluative procedure for faculty committees that may wish to use it).

6. "Athletics in Some of the Better Colleges and Universities," April, 1953.
7. "The Impact of Foundations on Higher Education." Addresses by ROBERT D. CALKINS, WILMER SHIELDS RICH, and L. K. TUNKS. 1954.
8. "Graduate Programs of Post-Baccalaureate Study for Teachers Leading to the Master's Degree," 1956.
9. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Institutions of Higher Education" and "Operation of the Accrediting Procedure."

V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies.

- A. *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*. 160 pages, 8½×11. Paper, \$2.00; *Teachers Handbook*, 8½×11. Paper. 32 pages, \$0.60. Order from the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C.
- B. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, 1954 Revision: Formal Service Courses in Schools. Published in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Order from the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C. \$5.00.
- C. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C.
 1. *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition), cloth \$3.50; paper. \$2.50. Complete set of separate sections (one copy each, Sections A through Y) unbound \$2.50; single copy of any section, \$0.25. Separate sections (sold in banded sets of 5 copies of each section priced to effect a saving for schools requiring multiple copies of specific sections): A *Manual*, 90¢; B *Pupil Population and School Community*, 70¢; C *Educational Needs of Youth*, 60¢; D *Program of Studies*, 50¢; D-1 *Core Program*, 50¢; D-2 *Agriculture*, 50¢; D-3 *Art*, 50¢; D-4 *Business Education*, 50¢; D-5 *English*, 60¢; D-6 *Foreign Languages*, 50¢; D-7 *Health and Safety*, 50¢; D-8 *Home Economics*, 50¢; D-9 *Industrial Arts*, 50¢; D-10 *Industrial Vocational Education*, 60¢; D-11 *Mathematics*, 50¢; D-12 *Music*, 50¢; D-13 *Physical Education for Boys*, 50¢; D-14 *Physical Education for Girls*, 50¢; D-15 *Science*, 50¢; D-16 *Social Studies*, 50¢; E *Pupil Activity Program*, 70¢; F *Library Services*, 60¢; G *Guidance Services*, 70¢; H *School Plant*, 70¢; I *School Staff and Administration*, 90¢; J *Data for Individual Staff Members*, 35¢; X *Statistical Summary of Evaluation*, 70¢; Y *Graphic Summary of Evaluation*, 75¢

VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage. Available from Editorial Office of THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, 4019 University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan.